THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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CONSERVATION OF RESOURCES

TEACHING CONSERVATION in a wealthy land is difficult. We have been brought up on the feeling that our resources—physical, human, inventive—are limitless. Exploit and then move west is in our blood. When our children and communities are amply supplied with necessities and luxuries, we find it difficult not to be extravagant. Lessons on conservation seem academic, and motivation to learn is lacking.

The current international situation presents every reason for adults and children to take stock. In light of our total national and international commitments, we are not so wealthy in physical resources, population, or ability to invent push-button contrivances as we have assumed. We find ourselves a nation in no position to be extravagant of natural resources or manpower, or to assume that our ingenuity will produce immediately the scientific gadgets to solve all physical problems which any situation can present.

Vandalism calls for correction　The lessons of conservation seem remote to children when we speak in terms of forests, oil, and census reports. The lessons of conservation need to be taught in terms of situations immediately at hand. Attitudes of carelessness toward school and other public properties, although not general, are sufficiently widespread to cause concern. In *Books in Their Courses* (a leaflet distributed by Henry Holt and Company, New York) Robert Moses, head of the City and State Park Systems of New York, states that "vandalism in New York City's parks and playgrounds cost us $200,468 last year." New York City's experience is not unique. What can be done about it? Mr. Moses writes:

It is immensely difficult to provide workable remedies which are neither too sub-

limated and idealistic, nor too tough and punitive, but there are ways of going about it. First, of course, additional facilities for play and active recreation, then education and publicity in all their phases and in their most popular and ingenious applications addressed to parents as well as their children, next watching and policing, and finally punishment on a reasonable basis which does not ordinarily involve criminality.

Teaching The California State De-
programs partment of Natural Resources, in co-operation with the Department of Education, has recently distributed a very commendable *Guidebook for Conservation Education*, which is a proposal for a program of action in the schools of California. The *Guidebook* can be used with profit in other states. The wholesome attitude toward conservation expressed in this pamphlet is worthy of frequent repetition lest youngsters get the idea that conservation means a negative kind of hoarding, rightly distasteful to all:

It should be noted here that genuine conservation is not the mere hoarding of resources, not the withdrawal from use of any natural resource, but wise use in place of wastefulness to the end that limited and therefore exhaustible resources can be made to last as long as possible and that renewable resources will not be used faster than they can be regenerated by natural processes.

The basis of school instruction in conservation has been broadening across the years. Not too long ago, conservation meant guarding our forests against fire. The scope of our thinking in regard to conservation has now expanded to include all essential resources. An excellent example of this more inclusive treatment of conservation appears in *Learning by Living: Education for Wise Use of Resources*—a recent report on the Resource-Use Education Project, sponsored jointly by the Southern States Work Conference on Educational Problems and the Committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education of the American Council on Education. The book is distributed by Orville Calhoun, in the State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida. The reading of the entire publication is worth every educator's time. Space permits only a short quotation here, but this will indicate the kinds of basic information which the Project suggests as "learning outcomes" for resource-use education:

1. *Human resources:* the physical, intellectual, and spiritual aspects of human beings. The major population facts and trends of a community; the status of human resource development—health, education, skills, occupations; the hopes, values, and customs of the people of the community. Expansion of this kind of information to state, nation, and world levels as education progresses.

2. *Natural resources:* climate, land surface, water, minerals, soil, natural vegetation, and wild life. The amounts, condition, and patterns of occurrence of natural resources in the community. Enlargement of this knowledge from the community outward through state, nation, and world.

3. *Social resources:* the tools man has invented to improve his living. The major social institutions and agencies in the community, the major purposes they serve, and how they work. Extension of these types of knowledge to include state, nation, and world.

Instruction in safety Conserving human physical well-being is an aspect of conserving to which more attention should be directed; yet in the United States the automobile alone kills more human beings than do our wars. Education in safe driving pays valuable dividends. The value of driver training is indicated by a release from the Association of Casualty and Surety Companies of New York City:

> A recent test has "conclusively proved" the practical value of high-school driver education by disclosing the fact that 1,100 young drivers who received this training were involved in only one-quarter as many accidents as a random sampling of 1,100 teen-agers who had not studied driver education in high school.

> To prove once and for all the concrete benefits of driver-education courses now being offered in over 7,000 high schools throughout the country, a survey was made in Delaware among 2,200 teen-age drivers, half of whom had been trained and the other half of whom had not. The results of the survey follow:

	Trained	Untrained
Arrests	5.2%	24.9%
Accidents	5.1%	22.9%
Warnings	9.2%	31 %

School officials as well as the general public should be interested in a new publication entitled *Deft Driving* written by Milton D. Kramer, assistant director of the Center for Safety Education, Division of General Education of New York University, and published by the Ford Motor Company. The Preface contains the following statements:

American society pays a high price for its inexpert handling of the automobile. In the past decade, errors committed by some of our 50,000,000 drivers have resulted in more than 300,000 traffic deaths and nearly 10,000,000 injuries.

Many individuals and groups have devoted much time and money to serious efforts to stem this rising tide of death and injury. Among the most recent and most promising of these efforts is the institution of driver-education courses in high schools throughout the country.

Since the inception of these courses, it has become increasingly apparent that good driver attitudes are fundamental to safe driving. Safety in today's complex traffic pattern calls for much more than just learning how to start, steer, and stop a motor car. This booklet, in addition to treating a number of significant safety factors and their relation to efficient driving, emphasizes the development of good attitudes in new drivers.

Copies of this pamphlet will be made available upon request directed to the Community Relations Department, Ford Motor Company, 3000 Shaefer Road, Dearborn, Michigan.

Child-labor and conservation Allowing children to work in hazardous occupations is not helping society to conserve one of its greatest resources—human beings. We have had a federal child-labor law, but not until recently has it been instrumental in preventing child labor in certain kinds of hazardous occupations. In the April, 1950, issue of the *National Parent-Teacher*, Maurice J. Tobin, United States Secretary of Labor, points out:

Federal child-labor provisions designed to protect children from dangerous and undesirable jobs, contained in the Fair Labor Standards Act, have been in effect for nearly twelve years. During these years the law itself has given important and far-reaching service in the protection of children. But the child-labor part of the law reached only children working in establishments producing goods to be shipped in interstate or foreign commerce. That part of the law could not be applied to the firms figuring in the accident stories at the beginning of this article, even though they were engaged in interstate commerce, because they did not produce goods that were shipped.

Under the act the minimum employment age is sixteen years for most jobs, eighteen years for jobs found and declared particularly hazardous, and fourteen years for a few jobs that can be done outside school hours under specified working conditions.

As amended, the law retains the same age standards and the old coverage, but it extends the child labor provisions to *any* employer who employs *any* minor in interstate or foreign commerce or in the production of goods for commerce.

Counseling High-School Students

Specialists or teachers? Guidance programs in some secondary schools emphasize the use of specialists, whereas in other programs the major guidance functions are delegated to teachers. Naturally, there are many programs of guidance which endeavor to keep a balance between the guidance services rendered by the teachers and those supplied by the specially trained guidance personnel. The latter program is rather generally supported by many leaders in the field of guidance.

The adequately trained teacher with the proper personnel point of view resists, quite properly, any guidance program which overplays the role of the guidance specialists. This attitude is very well stated by Max Birnbaum, chairman of the social-studies department of Weequahic (New Jersey) High School, in an article in the May, 1950, issue of *Social Education*. Birnbaum argues for the effectiveness of group guidance through the social studies and describes one teacher's success with the group technique. His comments should prove stimulating to teachers who are interested in guidance but do not know how to proceed. His point of view is worth repeating here:

The growth of the specialized guidance services has obscured the responsibility of the teacher for pupil guidance. More serious is the general assumption that the specialized guidance services are equipped to solve the complex emotional and social problems of children. In the transfer of the guidance responsibility to specialists, certain errors have unfortunately arisen. One is that the counselor should function as a psycho-therapist in helping the pupil solve his own serious behavior problems. This assumption is implicit in the average teacher's displeasure when a "problem" pupil returns from the guidance office as great a problem as before. When one reflects that the average period of analysis, conducted by a highly trained specialist, lasts two years, one wonders at the optimism of the classroom teacher. The counselor, on the other hand, frequently commits an equally serious error; he operates too often upon the belief that the only effective guidance is individual. Here and there is visible some appreciation of the possibilities of group guidance, but conceived usually

as a supplement to the individual relationship.

After presenting his case study, Mr. Birnbaum wisely concludes:

If the social-studies and guidance objectives of social, civic, and emotional competence are to be realized, the approach must be through: (1) the employment of the classroom group as a "growing environment" in which peers teach peers; (2) through the use of group-dynamics techniques, employed not as a bag of tricks, but wherever the situation demands them; (3) through pupil-teacher collaboration; and (4) through the problem-centered approach to social-studies teaching.

The coach as The opportunity for the
counselor broadly trained teacher to function in the guidance program is stressed also by Richard C. Havel, soccer coach at the City College of New York, in an article entitled "The Role of the Coach in the Guidance Program," appearing in the May, 1950, issue of *Scholastic Coach.* It is rather commonly assumed that, because of the informal atmosphere which can prevail in gymnasium classes and in the relations between coach and students, the physical-training teacher is in an advantageous position to serve as counselor. Why this is true is not often spelled out in sufficient detail, but this Coach Havel does. He believes that a coach can effectively serve as counselor in the areas of health, social guidance, and vocational guidance, and as a co-operator with personnel in the guidance department. Havel points out that the typical relation between coach and student permits of guidance opportunities for the following reasons:

1. *The Time Element.* In no other subject area does the teacher have as many contact hours with the same students. He meets with them for about 225 hours per semester—or from two to three hours every day during the school week and for longer periods in regularly scheduled game situations. During this time, the pupils can be observed and some of their more apparent needs determined.

2. *Close Personal Contact.* Another advantage is the informal type of relationship which exists between the coach and his team. Coaching requires a great deal of individual attention, and a close rapport can thus be established much to the benefit of the student. Boys are quick to confide in any coach whose personality is sympathetic.

3. *Student Motivational Factors.* Pupils enter into sports with a great deal of enthusiasm. The desire "to make the team" can be wisely exploited by the coach for focusing attention on needy areas. Team members are receptive to advice, and group spirit facilitates the process.

4. *Student Interest Considerations.* Garrison [Karl C. Garrison, *The Psychology of Adolescence*, pp. 82–83. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946], in reviewing studies on adolescent interests in extra-curricular activities, found that athletics seem to be the most popular in the average high school. Since participation in athletics is a voluntary matter, it is likely that the student will be more apt to accept adult guidance under these conditions.

5. *Student Numbers Involved.* In most cases, the coach deals with a limited number of students. This enables him to know them intimately. Strang indicates the importance of this factor when she states, "In locker rooms, on trips, on the side lines, and in other situations, the coach or physical-education director can talk intimately with individual students. Likewise in small groups and teams, wholesome friendships and good personal relations develop" [Ruth Strang,

The Role of the Teacher in Personnel Work,
p. 158. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1946].

6. *Psychological Considerations.* Throughout the season, the leader of an athletic team sees the player react to a variety of situations. He is in position to view the student in his dealings with others, his stability under emotional stress, his ability to understand fundamental concepts, and his sense of moral values. Interscholastic competition can in many instances become a sounding board through which to discover clues to an individual's personality maladjustments.

What is true of the coach-counseling situation at the college level can be stated with equal force about the secondary-school level.

Counselor   One problem which su-
training for perintendent, principal,
teachers   or director of guidance
              faces in stimulating
teachers to assume guidance responsibility is lack of know-how on the part of teachers. Many classroom teachers have a genuine desire to aid pupils with their educational, social, health, and vocational problems but lack information and knowledge of techniques. Without these, they hesitate to attempt to give this type of aid. It is always so much easier to refer a case to a "specialist," especially if such a person is around and apparently willing to serve, or, if no specialists are around, to defer the matter until money can be found to appoint one. This situation prevails at every level in education, but it is especially in evidence at the secondary and the college levels, where departmentalized instruction prevails. The problem is

how to provide in-service training for successful teachers who desire assistance in becoming teacher-counselors. Many schools and colleges are instituting in-service training programs for certain members of their faculties for the purpose of developing better guidance and personnel programs through the use of trained teacher-counselors.

One such program is described in a well-organized presentation of the program carried on at Florida State University. This article, "A Program of In-service Training for Teacher-Counselors," is written by Melvene Draheim Hardee and appears in the *Junior College Journal* for April, 1950. The author is co-ordinator of counseling-guidance at Florida State University. Her report should be read *in toto* by those concerned with the problem of in-service training of teacher-counselors. The following presents enough of the report to stimulate interest:

In order that teacher-counselors at Florida State University may develop knowledge, skills, and appreciation to fit them for their functions as counselors, the following activities or materials are used:

1. A three-day seminar for educational counselors held at the beginning of the Fall Quarter, prior to the advent of students.

2. Spaced seminars or group meetings held throughout the school year as the need for them arises.

3. A Manual-Workbook for Educational Counselors originated by a Guidance Committee for purposes of outlining philosophy and practices of guidance.

4. Individual interviews with educational counselors at the convenience of the counselor at any time throughout the year.

5. A bulletin, *Coordinative Notes,* issued periodically by the Co-ordinator, for the

purpose of bringing all counselors up-to-date on a point or points under immediate consideration. . . .

SEMINAR ORGANIZATION

In providing experiences which would fit teacher-counselors to advise the typical student, the Co-ordinator included the following:

Content

1. Explanation of ways of conducting a group meeting with twenty counselees for purposes of giving information to them on routine matters.

2. Information on conducting an individual interview.

3. Information about registration procedures.

4. Explanation over the makeup of the *Manual for Counselors* and its coverage.

5. Explanation of the placement and exemption examinations and of the psychological test.

6. Interpretation of the students' high-school test scores and high-school grades.

7. Explanation of the records to be kept by counselors for their personal files and for the Office of Personnel Records.

8. Review of the kinds of problems the typical student might face in a first year.

9. Explanation of the responsibilities of educational counselors in dealing with student problems.

Referral of special problems In spite of the general interest manifested in guidance, many schools have but rudimentary programs of guidance. Until such time as schools provide complete programs, private agencies in the form of "guidance clinics" and "counseling centers" will continue to thrive. They will thrive because many persons in the community desire counseling.

Not all agencies are acceptable from the professional standpoint. Some of them charge high fees and render questionable services. It is difficult at times for educators to know how to judge those which operate according to sound professional standards from those which do not. Genuine aid is now available in the *1950 Directory of Vocational Counseling Agencies*, distributed at one dollar a copy by the Ethical Practices Committee of the National Vocational Guidance Association (Box 64, Washington University, St. Louis 5, Missouri).

The Ethical Practices Committee of this organization is to be congratulated on its excellent start in providing a list of approved agencies in the field of educational and vocational guidance. Though this publication represents professionally sound agencies, it may not be fully complete. Annual revisions are anticipated.

Counsel on college entrance Colleges vary so greatly as to curriculums, physical facilities, personnel programs, endowments, scholarship policies, etc., that high-school pupils should no longer plan just "to go to college." They should be encouraged to apply for admission to the college or colleges which come closest to meeting their particular needs.

This situation is generally recognized, and many secondary schools have a special counselor assigned to the task of advising prospective college students. Typically, such a person is on the teaching staff, with a reduced teaching schedule. This counselor has

the college catalogues, makes appointments with college representatives to visit the school, and generally acts as a liaison functionary between the high school, its pupils, and the colleges.

It is difficult to arrange for individual visits of college representatives and interested pupils when so many colleges have representatives in the field. This is especially true of high schools with outstanding reputations for training competent scholars or athletes, or both. Such schools have found it convenient to have "college days" or "college nights," when parents, pupils, and a group of college representatives can be brought together. *The College Board Review* for March, 1950, presents a valuable "Report on College Nights" which should prove of interest to secondary-school administrators and counselors. This report, which was made by the College Nights Committee of the Middle States Association of Collegiate Registrars and Officers of Admission, summarizes favorable and unfavorable opinions concerning this program. Some of the conclusions are:

In our study we have observed that the range of high-school attitude extends all the way from complete satisfaction with College Nights to a decision to discontinue them altogether. Principals and counselors who favor the programs give various reasons in support of their conclusions. They claim the following benefits are derived:

1. Interest in college is stimulated.

2. Students and parents have an opportunity to meet college representatives and to obtain firsthand information.

3. Closer unity with the colleges is developed.

4. Attention is focused on high-school studies and student achievement.

5. Any weaknesses in high-school curriculums or guidance are revealed.

6. The interest of high-school teachers in the guidance program is enlisted.

7. Parents are encouraged to give more serious thought to their children's college courses, and to the selection of colleges to be attended.

Those who do not favor College Nights offer the following criticisms:

1. The results accruing from these events are not commensurate with the expended effort.

2. In some schools the affair has assumed the proportions of a "show"; in some schools, too much emphasis is placed upon the preliminary assembly at the expense of the group conference period.

3. There is some evidence of the development of competition among colleges as shown by the use of banners and pictorial material the chief purpose of which is to attract attention.

4. Too many uninterested students drift into these meetings and wander from room to room gathering materials intended for serious-minded inquirers.

5. College representatives, too frequently, travel a distance expecting to confer with a number of students only to find that the group did not materialize.

6. In some schools too much of the responsibility for guidance as to college-entrance requirements and courses is confined to the College Night program.

7. Students complain that they are not allowed enough time to talk with a sufficient number of college representatives.

8. It is much more effective to invite individual college representatives to visit the high schools and address the students who are definitely interested in college.

The report also presents a list of what appear to be the essential elements of the best college night pro-

grams. These will prove of genuine interest to high-school educators who face this problem.

Advice for **The demand for profes-**
candidates sional services of dentists
for dentistry exceeds the supply. The
facilities of approved dental schools do not permit of much expansion in numbers of students. These facts make it imperative that persons who are admitted for training possess the kind of aptitudes which will enable them to finish. Shailer Peterson, secretary of the Council on Dental Education of the American Dental Association (222 East Superior Street, Chicago 11, Illinois), has issued a significant statement in which he indicates that the Dental Aptitude Testing Program will become nation-wide for 1951 entrants. In part, his statement indicates:

The dental-school applicant for the class enrolling in the fall of 1951 will be asked by the dental schools to take a battery of examinations administered by the Council on Dental Education of the American Dental Association. The dental schools have for some time been interested in improved methods of selecting from their applicants those students who have those special abilities and qualities necessary for success in dental schools and for later success in the practice of dentistry. Several dental schools have conducted their own aptitude tests, and about six years ago the Council on Dental Education began studying the possibility of developing a battery of tests that might be used by the schools for better evaluating the potential ability of their applicants. . . .

Applicants for admission to dental school for the 1951 fall classes should make applica-

tion directly to the dental school or dental schools of their choice. After reviewing their credentials, the dental school will decide which applicants should take the aptitude tests in order that test scores be available at the time that the final selection of the class is made. . . .

Testing centers will be set up in all of the thirty-nine dental schools which have indicated their desire to co-operate in this program. . . . For those who will apply for admission to the Freshman class to be enrolled in the fall of 1951, four testing periods are now planned. The first of these will be held at all testing centers during Thanksgiving vacation, 1950. Another testing session will be held during the Christmas holidays. . . . Two other sessions in February and April of 1951 will be held.

TOO MANY OR TOO FEW ENGINEERS?

COUNSELORS WHO DISCUSS vocational problems with pupils have now available, for their use and that of pupils, job descriptions and information about the relative demand for workers to a much greater extent than was true a decade ago. Government agencies and private publishing houses are making available occupational data of real worth to counselor and counselee alike.

Much more must yet be done, however. Some data concerning present and future demand for specific kinds of workers present none too clear a picture of the actual situation. A case in point is the discussion about the supply of engineers. Last winter the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics prophesied that there will soon be an oversupply of engineers. In the April 1, 1950, issue of *Higher Educa-*

tion, Henry H. Armsby, associate chief for engineering education of the United States Office of Education, suggests that, instead of an oversupply, there will be a shortage. Says he:

The small excess of engineering graduates over engineering employment in 1950 and 1951 will undoubtedly be absorbed in nonengineering work, especially administrative, application, and technical sales positions, for which engineering training has been found to be an excellent preparation.

The indicated number of engineering graduates in 1952 will be much smaller than the number actually placed in 1949, and by 1953 engineering graduates are expected to be fewer in number than the Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates will be needed for *actual engineering jobs.* From 1954 to 1965 or later there will develop a serious shortage of engineers, *unless the ratio of Freshman engineers to high-school graduates is increased.*

Where does all this leave the high-school counselor? He cannot possibly make an individual investigation into the supply-and-demand situation in all vocational fields. The one disturbing statement in Mr. Armsby's prophecy is that some engineers "will undoubtedly be absorbed in nonengineering work." There are some administrative and sales positions that require an engineering background. How far afield, however, can we go? Some counselors, of course, may feel that engineering is good background training for business generally. This viewpoint is challenged by the writer. Engineering training as a substitute for general education is evidence of confused educational planning. Specialized vocational training is typically more costly than liberal arts edu-

cation, and to the extent that the specialized training is not specifically used vocationally by the individual who received it, it does not justify the extra cost. The only justification for vocational training in higher education is to provide workers for specialized jobs; otherwise, the emphasis in higher education should be upon the general education of the student.

The number of engineers to be trained should bear a relationship to the numbers that can be used in useful employment. If some young people are interested in engineering because of its general application to business, such individuals should be advised to register at colleges which offer this kind of combination. It seems hardly justified from a social point of view to provide full engineering training to students who are going to use vocationally only parts of such training.

YOUTHS FACING MILITARY SERVICE

MANY YOUNG MEN eighteen to twenty-one years old have already found themselves, or will find themselves in the months ahead, in an awkward situation. Employers hesitate to employ youths with undetermined Selective Service status. Many such youths either hesitate to enter upon a long-term educational program or are confused about the kind of short-term training they should attempt. Whether such individuals are registered in school, are drop-outs or graduates, all are in need of counseling and should have short-term training

courses provided for them. The title of "preinduction training" for such courses may not be quite the correct term; yet the courses might offer something with the character of pre-induction training.

On the other hand, the youth with time on his hands until his status is made definite may desire an opportunity for more general education. Courses should be provided which might conceivably give him something to do in his spare time after he is in the service, should he be inducted. This may be an opportunity to introduce some youths to the Great Books. Perhaps others should be given opportunity to review mathematics, English, or foreign languages, or be given the privilege of joining gymnasium classes for physical conditioning. At least, high-school and college administrators should recognize that a new problem faces certain youth and that, for the sake of their morale and continued educational and physical fitness, programs should be developed for them, even though such programs are not of traditional types.

SCHOOLING AS USUAL?

HOW MANY YOUTH AND TEACHERS can society afford to place in military service before we jeopardize the training of potential leaders of tomorrow? Samuel M. Brownell, a Yale University professor, in a broadcast over Station WTIC, called for the "drafting" of qualified youth into the field of education and the "freezing" of teachers in their jobs.

In the face of the current conflict and in the light of possible years of tension, Mr. Brownell asserted that he would "make it very difficult" for teachers in elementary and secondary schools as well as colleges to leave their posts to enter the armed services or war industry. In addition, he suggested that drafted youth with ability and interest be trained, under civilian control, to meet the nation's future teaching needs. Mr. Brownell declared:

There are many who recognize that we have to consider national security on a long-range as well as an immediate basis. Education has a tremendous contribution to make to both. It can neglect neither.

At the close of World War II, the Yale education expert pointed out, the United States was very short of trained leaders because the nation "gambled" on a relatively short conflict, with light casualties. With teachers and students away and college and vocational-school programs reduced to war-related training, many fields were neglected.

In the future, Mr. Brownell said, schools must be "geared" to keep a strong program going on all levels to train leaders to meet the social, political, scientific, moral, and economic problems of this country and the world:

We must see that we strengthen rather than weaken all portions of our educational system. The training of leaders is a long process, each step depending for its success upon the excellence of the preceding one. . . . To weaken any part of the process is to lower the efficiency of all succeeding parts.

Today the United States faces a different problem from that facing it when it entered World War II. The biggest difference is the greatly increased number of children the schools must educate in the next ten years. In the 1930's the average number of children born each year was about 2,250,000. During the 1940's the birth rate increased tremendously, and now there are some 7,500,000 to be educated.

National security in the future requires that they have as good teachers, schoolrooms, equipment and supplies as in 1940—in fact, better—if the schools are not to weaken the base of education upon which our technical skill and our professional training of the future rest. We cannot afford to stop building schools for this army of 7,500,000 added children, or providing them with the equipment and supplies they need. They must be adequately educated, or national security is jeopardized.

The necessity of maintaining a flow of trained manpower is emphasized in a "Preliminary Report of August 5 Conference of Council Committees, Representatives of Seventeen National Educational Organizations, and of Governmental Agencies" distributed by the American Council on Education on August 7, 1950. This report indicates that:

Undercurrent in the discussions was a recognition of the following principles:

1. Since the period of military preparedness and/or armed conflict is likely to be long, it is imperative that there be a continuing flow of trained manpower to meet both immediate and long-range needs of our total national security.

2. The threat of atomic warfare entails the necessity of dispersion and distribution rather than concentration of training programs and research. Consideration should be given to geographic distribution of necessary

units away from the areas of priority targets for bombing.

3. Since the conflict is basically in the field of ideologies, it is essential that those aspects of education which contribute to the understanding and the day-to-day practice of democratic living be a continuing major function of our institutions of higher education.

4. So far as possible the services of individuals in instruction and research should be utilized where they are. In World War II many individuals were drawn from their own classrooms and laboratories in order to establish large instructional or research centers. In many instances, they would have been more effective if retained within their own environment.

CO-OPERATIVE PROGRAM IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

A NATION-WIDE PROJECT to improve the quality of administration in public school systems has been announced by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, of Battle Creek, Michigan. The program will extend over a five-year period and will be financed by Foundation grants that will total over $3,000,000. It will enable selected universities to review their programs of pre-service preparation in educational administration and to develop programs of in-service training for school administrators now serving at local, county, and state levels.

Hugh B. Masters, director of the Education Division of the Kellogg Foundation, when announcing the program, said that it is being developed in co-operation with the American Association of School Administrators, the National Council of Chief State School Officers, and the Depart-

ment of Rural Education of the National Education Association. The hope is that marked improvement will be effected in the general efficiency of educational administration, since the quality of educational leadership during the next quarter-century will largely determine our ability to develop an educational program good enough to achieve the high goals to which we as a free people are committed.

The details of the program were presented by the *New York Times* on August 7, 1950:

Although the country has been divided into six regions to simplify administration of the project, all sections will share information and will have these common objectives:

1. To analyze and define the role of school administrators on the state, county, and local levels.
2. To ascertain how the standards of the relatively young profession can be raised and in some measures made uniform.
3. To learn ways of improving college education curriculums, especially those for prospective principals and superintendents.
4. To foster greater co-operation among educational groups and institutions, private and public, to speed progress and facilitate research in the field as a whole.

In each of the six regions, one school will head the program. Three of these have been selected and have received money for the first year's operation.

In the Midwest, the University of Chicago will be the center of activity. On the basis of its program, approved by the Foundation, it will receive $500,000 over the next five years. Columbia University's Teachers College will head the work in the Middle Atlantic states and is scheduled to receive grants totaling $450,000. Harvard University will be the headquarters in New England and will get $257,000 by 1955.

The University of Chicago center is designed to use the full resources of the University in education and in the related fields in the social sciences. Francis S. Chase, of the University's Department of Education and director of the Rural Editorial Service, will serve as director of the center. An executive committee of seven members of the University's Division of Social Sciences, headed by Alonzo G. Grace, chairman of the Department of Education, will establish the general policies of the co-operative program.

Other educational agencies, including state and private universities, land grant and teachers' colleges, state departments of education, and local school systems, will be invited to participate in the program.

To bring effective programs of in-service education within reach of all administrators, the University of Chicago center will seek to develop institutes and workshops closely related to the needs of superintendents and principals in the area to be served. The center will offer resources in the form of consultative services and materials to assist superintendents of schools, personnel of state departments of education, and other co-operating agencies to identify their problems, to make surveys, to try experimental approaches, to evaluate the effectiveness of existing and experimental practices, and to train school and community leaders.

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

WHO'S WHO FOR OCTOBER

Authors of The news notes in this
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of Chicago. JESSE A. BOND, director of
teacher training at the University
of California, Los Angeles, defines
some of the basic needs of youth and
points out the role of the high school
in helping its pupils to attain these
needs. ALEXANDER FRAZIER, at pres-
ent research assistant in the Horace
Mann–Lincoln Institute of School Ex-
perimentation, Teachers College, Co-
lumbia University, and formerly cur-
riculum consultant for Phoenix Union
High Schools and Phoenix College,
Phoenix, Arizona, and LORENZO K.
LISONBEE, chairman of the biology
department of North Phoenix High
School, Phoenix, Arizona, report the
results of a study of the concern which
adolescent boys and girls feel in re-
spect to their physiques. CAPTAIN
VIRGIL J. O'CONNOR, information and
education officer, United States Air
Force, reviews the teaching techniques
used in the Air Force during the war

and suggests that both military and
non-military classrooms need to be
studied scientifically in order to dis-
cover and put to use the most efficient
forms of teaching and learning. DAVID
H. RUSSELL, professor of education at
the University of California, Berkeley,
and CAROLINE SHRODES, associate pro-
fessor in language arts at San Fran-
cisco State College, continue their dis-
cussion of the contributions of re-
search in bibliotherapy to the lan-
guage-arts program. PAUL B. JACOB-
SON, dean of the School of Education
at the University of Oregon, and ROB-
ERT R. WIEGMAN, graduate fellow in
education at the same institution,
present a list of selected references on
the organization and administration
of secondary education.

Reviewers OTIS D. FROE, director
of books of student personnel at
Morgan State College,
Baltimore, Maryland. JAMES M. MC-
CALLISTER, dean of Herzl Junior Col-
lege, Chicago, Illinois. WALTER J.
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CAN THE HIGH SCHOOL HELP YOUTH
MEET ITS BASIC NEEDS?

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IDEAS ABOUT THE RESPONSIBILITIES which should be carried by the modern secondary school are legion. *Colleges* and other institutions for post-high-school study maintain that the secondary school should provide specific preparation for advanced work. *Employers* want young people to have attained from their secondary-school experience at least the broad abilities which can be quickly converted into skills necessary to the jobs at hand. *Parents* wish their children, while in high school, to do well scholastically, to develop into well-rounded persons, and, by time of graduation, to understand the major factors requisite to the successful individual, according to the definition of success which the parents have formulated. *The community* demands that the secondary school shall educate all its youth to fit neatly into present patterns of living. It wants these young people to point to, and prepare for, adulthood and to preserve and value that which, at the present time, is deemed worthy. *The state and nation* hold high the ideal of good citizenship as a chief objective of all schools.

These challenges to the secondary school have merit. Most of the criticism of this school is made with sincerity by those persons whose viewpoints are limited by horizons of their own lives.

It is trite to point out that the modern secondary school is a very different institution from that of fifty years ago. Its enrolment has increased in near geometric progression during much of this time. Truly, it has now become a school of all the people. Upon it have been cast many of the responsibilities for rearing youth which parents and home formerly preserved as their prerogatives. The home is no longer a self-contained unit. It has become part of the community. Attention and activities of the family are increasingly affected by factors outside the home. The responsibility of interpreting this newer pattern of living and preparing youth to participate in it has, to a large degree, devolved upon the secondary school. Thus, we find this school at once attempting to prepare youth for college, for family life, for community participation, for the responsibilities of citizenship, for success in vocations, for participation in recreational activi-

ties, and for adjustment to the pressures of increasingly complex living.

Little wonder that the secondary school is staggering under its load. Many of its pupils and teachers have become confused. Discouragement and frustration have paralleled confusion. In many cases the leadership of these schools has been faulty. Authoritarianism has been substituted by many school principals for their own lack of understanding of purposes and lack of ability to develop and organize democratically a suitable program of education. In few instances have buildings and equipment been adequate to serve the diverse purposes which the modern secondary school has had to assume. Teacher-education institutions, for the most part, have prepared high-school teachers to serve in relatively narrow capacities. All this could be expected in a school which has had to transform itself again and again during the relatively brief period of a few decades.

That the secondary school has succeeded as well as it has, in spite of the enormous responsibilities thrust upon it, may be deemed one of the most remarkable accomplishments in the whole history of education. This school has wielded increasingly powerful influence on the lives of the youth of America. It has provided, for the most part, a warm and friendly environment. Its doors have been open to no select group. In seeking to make itself worth while to all comers, it has reflected the principle of "equal opportunity for all."

SIGNIFICANT PROBLEMS

But the modern high school does have problems. Many of these problems are organizational; some involve buildings and equipment; others center in records and reports; still others are concerned with public relations. Even the so-called "simple" process of operating a secondary school in such a way that all pupils are assigned somewhere throughout the day and all teachers have full-time loads of work which they are prepared to carry is a task involving severe problems. While many single problems relating to routines of the school may not be difficult, the total challenge they present, especially as they come into conflict with one another, is sufficient to absorb much of the time and energy of both teachers and administrators. It is understandable, then, how attention can be diverted from other and more significant problems, which, though seemingly remote from the day-to-day activities of the school, may be both basic in the lives of young people and fundamental in the attainment of the objectives of the school. Some of these problems are presented below.

1. *How can youth be made to realize that they are useful, important, and necessary in a society which has less and less for them to do?*

The human race discovered long ago that each individual needs to carry responsibility; to realize his ability to provide, in part at least, for his own needs; to know that his con-

tributions to other persons are important. Today these needs are popularly recognized as major elements of morale. While circumstances are such that many youth, in 1950, still derive the values resulting from the investment of their own energies in varied and worthy enterprises, the trend of American life is clearly in the direction of making these young people entirely dependent on adults. They have fewer and fewer out-of-school chores. Seldom in the home or community do they observe how the products of their work serve any purpose or any person. Yet this is one of their strongest potential desires.

The result is that young people are seeking other means of satisfying their need for recognition. They "show off." They are increasingly willing to be partners in any activity, whether it be worthy or otherwise. They demand attention. They must be important to something, to someone. The statement of this problem is much easier than its solution, especially since it is but one of a cluster of problems involving the social and economic life of the community.

2. *How can high-school pupils be conditioned to want to work and to accomplish worthy purposes when they live in a society whose prime motives are those of possessing ready-made articles which youth have had no share in producing?*

This problem is closely identified with the first. While young people are not desired as producers of goods,

their value as a buying potential for goods produced by adults is enormous. However great may be their demand for ready-made articles, production always seems to exceed it. Thus, vigorous effort is made to increase demand, and these efforts often take strange forms. Youth freely recognize their importance as consumers. They are increasingly surrounded with factory-made things, many of which have little intrinsic value.

The children become accustomed to this environment; then they go to school and hear strange words and phrases such as "self-reliance," "satisfaction through accomplishment," and "development of creative ability." These terms have appeal to him because they seem to be in accordance with something innate. The school program, however, requires work, and, while fundamentally young people like to work, they do not receive the immediate and objective return from it that they get from some of their out-of-school activities. Unless progress at school is definite and continuous, it is easy for them to take refuge in a ready-made world of gadgets and materials. The school cannot compete for them as buyers, but the school does have a tremendous ally in their desire to achieve, to grow, to be worth while.

3. *How can high-school students be taught to develop a scale of values and to become so habituated to its use that it aids in wise investments of energy, time, and money?*

This now looms as a major problem of education. The problem is especially complicated because of the transitory nature of values established by adults. Values which operate in the behavior of all individuals have become largely controlled by forces apart from the individuals themselves. Parents and teachers, who propound one set of values to children and exemplify another in their own lives, appear awkward and ineffective, if not insincere. One recurring reason for not giving more attention in school to values is that such emphasis may lead to the development of fixed standards which become artificial in a rapidly changing world. On the other hand, society demands that its youth shall maintain desirable attitudes and shall react wisely within the activities of living. These demands appear as basic purposes of all education. It is becoming increasingly evident, therefore, that major and specific attention must be given to this problem in the secondary school.

4. *How can young people be taught skills and disciplines necessary for performing difficult tasks, in the face of wider dispersion of their time in increasing numbers of activities?*

In a recent study by the writer,[1] the scattering of time and attention among many activities was submitted by high-school pupils as a prominent reason for not making better marks in their classes. All groups of pupils in

[1] Jesse A. Bond, "Why Pupils Do Not Make Higher Marks in High School." Unpublished study.

this study, whether arranged by ability, achievement, sex, or grade level, maintained that it was especially difficult for them to get started to work; that the radio, television, and other activities interfered with study; that they had a tendency to daydream; and that they had so many things to do that it was impossible to do any of them as well as they should.

The variety of activities in which the individual must engage, as well as the amount of knowledge he must possess in order to make a minimum adjustment to life, has increased immeasurably during the past fifty years. He now finds it difficult, if not impossible, to exclude all this from his consciousness at will so that he can give his undivided attention to one thing at a time. Thus, the high-school pupil finds it hard to get started to study and easy to daydream.

In order to give its pupils a broad education, the secondary school has extended its offerings, increased the number of elective classes, and established a co-curricular program. Valuable as these measures have been, they have unfortunately tended to disperse the attention of the pupil still further. As the pupil realizes that he does not have the time and energy to do his work well, he can scarcely be blamed if he loses the inclination to try. Mediocrity of work in all things can easily become his standard.

5. *How can youth be taught independence and creativeness when they are increasingly concerned about security?*

As the focal points of life have extended outward from the family to the community, state, and nation, and as individual enterprise has been largely superseded by group activity, the individual has become increasingly submerged. In order to survive, he has been forced to identify his interests with those of other persons. He has heard much about failure. Fair success, with some security, appears attractive compared with taking chances with greater success but possible failure. This condition, so much apparent in the home and community, is reflected by the pupil in school. There are few strong inducements out of school for him to be creative and independent in school. He wants to be secure in knowing, first, that he is not unlike others and in realizing that there are persons who know him and like him. He also needs assurance that he is making progress toward gradually formulating goals and that there are persons with strength who will undergird him in his plans and efforts. Yet he has the innate desire to exercise some independence and even creativeness. These two attributes have been essentials in building America. The challenge for the school is to keep them alive.

6. *How can secondary-school pupils be taught to learn by means of words when much of their learning and experience, both in and out of school, is nonverbal?*

In the study to which reference has been made,[2] it was discovered that all groups of pupils checked, as a prominent reason for not making better marks, the fact that they preferred to learn and express themselves through means other than words.

However hard young people may try to become good students, the knowledge and information they contact is assimilated only in terms of its significance to them. Their learning out of school is largely through actual experience or through realistic portrayals of experience by radio, cinema, television, and other similar devices. Pupils conditioned to these means of learning are frequently overpowered by having to adjust to a procedure of learning only by means of reading and study. Thus, to bridge the gap between voluntary, concrete, and realistic learning out of school and necessarily more formal and abstract learning in school is a challenge which secondary education cannot evade.

WHAT THE SECONDARY SCHOOL CAN DO

The obvious question arising from the statement of these problems is: What can be done about them? They are not new problems although their seriousness is undoubtedly increasing year by year.

Many school activities, as well as instructional procedures, reflect awareness that the problems exist. Establishment of the school club and co-curricular program, expansion of student self-government, and the encouragement of study and discussion

[2] *Ibid.*

of youth problems by pupils in regular classes are examples of measures which the schools have taken to meet some of these problems. Valuable as all these provisions may be, especially for many young persons who seem to need them least, it is becoming clear that some of these problems can be met only by concerted action of many elements of society. In this undertaking, it is appropriate for the secondary school to assume leadership; for, as was suggested earlier, there appears to be no other agency to interpret the newer pattern of life in which youth finds itself—a life involving elements extending ever outward from the home into community, nation, and world.

So far the secondary school has done comparatively little to interpret the problems of youth to the public. Instead, it has tried to solve the problems alone and to explain, and frequently to defend, its own activities to the public. Although parents often unknowingly contribute to the difficulties of their children, they do not understand the causes of resulting undesirable behavior and are quick to condemn the school either for causing it or for not correcting it. Reports of violations of the law by adolescents increasingly include the names of the high schools in which the violators are pupils. Although the difficulties and problems of youth are seldom traceable to one cause, parents and public are only slightly aware of this. Inevitably, then, an important task for the secondary school is that of educat-

ing its community to understand the problems of youth and the resultant responsibilities of both school and community. The realization of this objective, incidentally, can serve indirectly as the best possible means of securing adequate financial support for the school.

There are many activities which the school can incorporate into its program to aid in the solution of the six problems listed above. The following suggestions represent kinds of activities or points of emphasis which should have value:

1. The faculty of the school should be serious students of the socioeconomic-psychological situation of the family and modern youth. Each high-school pupil should study this same area either in one course, or, better, in single units of several courses.

2. Pupils should develop and experience the use of criteria for evaluating: (a) worthy living, (b) personality and conduct, (c) activities in which young people engage, (d) possessions, (e) friends and acquaintances, (f) organizations, (g) self. The community should be invited to participate in formulating these criteria and, in any event, should be made fully aware of them.

3. Each pupil, regardless of his ability, should carry at least one course each semester in which he is challenged to do the best work of which he is capable. This course should be a major project for him and should demand time, uninterrupted attention, and his full ability to carry

things through to completion. The course should be so planned that, while the work of each pupil is related to certain core material, it is sufficiently distinctive to encourage creativeness and some independence of thought. The value of the achievement of each pupil should be emphasized and his growth in individual skills of work clearly understood by him. This is not to imply that pupils should not do well in all classes. It is rather a suggested provision for developing and maintaining continuously at least one high point of excellence in which the pupil can experience unusual satisfaction for achievement. Thus, it can serve both as a powerful stimulus for further good work and as a source for gaining the recognition so much desired by every individual.

4. Realizing the extent to which the attention of youth is scattered among a wide variety of activities, the school faculty should place much stress on how to study and concentrate, how to relate small tasks to larger ideas, how to measure specific progress, and how to vary study procedures in light of the work to be done.

5. While the secondary school should educate its pupils to work together, it needs also to lay special emphasis on the importance of self-reliance and the satisfactions to be gained from personal achievement. These objectives cannot be attained merely by exhorting boys and girls to work vigorously. They are accustomed, in activities out of school, to receive immediate returns for small expenditures of energy. Closely directed group and individual study of small areas of work, accompanied by many measures of growth, is an example of an especially effective exercise to get the pupil under way and to let him know what he can do. As he gains confidence, he may be given larger assignments to study independently. Finally, he may be encouraged to evaluate his own successes and to play a more active part in planning his activities.

6. Nonverbal avenues to learning, such as films, transcriptions, pictures, and laboratory demonstrations, should be used extensively to stimulate interest and pupil response, to create background for further learning, and to condition pupils to seeking additional knowledge, including information to be gained from reading and study.

7. In all its activities and classes, the school should emphasize the importance of basing conclusions on fact and evidence, rather than on prejudice, propaganda, or mass influence.

8. So far as conditions permit, the school should be made to represent various elements of life at their best.

9. The secondary school should make continuous appraisal of its accomplishments in terms of basic needs of the youth it is called on to serve. This appraisal should not be limited to the use of standardized tests of sub-

ject matter. Rather, it should involve study of the extent to which the school has provided for all pupil needs— mental, physical, moral, spiritual, and psychological.

This task is not easy, nor are the findings always complimentary to the school. But the good school, like the good teacher, is highly critical of what is being done. The more clearly it understands the success of its program, the more readily is it able to make necessary modifications. The school that criticizes its own program is seldom criticized severely by forces outside the school. On the other hand, the school that reposes in smug complacency may be detected first by restless pupils and eventually by an intolerant community.

A DEFINITE CHALLENGE

The total job of the secondary school is complicated, difficult, and changing. Therein lies its fascination. Its responsibilities demand teachers with human understanding. Its problems require workers with imagination, courage, creativeness, and persistence. It presents a challenge to great leadership and to American education.

ADOLESCENT CONCERNS WITH PHYSIQUE

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A MAJOR TASK OF ADOLESCENCE is to adjust to the dramatic physical changes which mark the development of the child into the adult.[1] In addition, the adolescent has, somewhere along the line, the problem of accepting his emerging shape and size as the physique with which he will have to proceed through life. Knowledge of the nature of adolescent physical changes is considerable; however, knowledge about the feelings of the adolescent seems less well documented. In searching for such evidence, the present writers were struck by the frequency with which the small, but intensively analyzed, sample represented in a California study is cited.[2] In order to prepare materials for helping adolescents toward adjustment, it was felt desirable to collect local evidence that might be somewhat broader in its possible implications.

THE PRESENT STUDY

A questionnaire.—The present report covers the responses of all tenth-graders at North Phoenix High School for the year 1949–50. These 580 students, 309 girls and 271 boys, were enrolled in the required biology course. A questionnaire was drawn up to discover how these children saw themselves physically and how they felt about their conceptions of themselves. The major sections of the questionnaire dealt with weight, height and proportions, rate of development, facial appearance, and desire for self-improvement. All students answered anonymously.

For the first three sections, self-description was based on five choices. For example, in the section on height these choices were (1) short, (2) rather short, (3) about average, (4) rather tall, and (5) tall. In Section 4, facial appearance, the student was simply to check those of 59 items that

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[1] This task, along with others, is well defined in the following publication: Robert J. Havighurst, *Developmental Tasks and Education.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948.

[2] Herbert R. Stolz and Lois Meek Stolz, "Adolescent Problems Related to Somatic Variations," *Adolescence*, pp. 81–99. Forty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1944.

he felt applied to him; items were grouped under "nose," "mouth," "skin," etc. Section 5, dealing with self-improvement, was designed to elicit a free written response. After each item of self-description in Sections 1 through 4, there followed a five-point scale for expression of worry or concern: (1) "Never think about it," (2) "Think about it now and then," (3) "Worry about it a little," (4) "Worry a good deal," and (5) "Worry a lot." To simplify reporting, the responses on this scale from 3 through 5 are combined and considered to represent what we will call *concern*.

Limitations of the study.—In reporting the findings of this survey, the writers acknowledge that whatever generalizations may be drawn must be regarded as highly tentative. The sample is not large. It represents only tenth-graders. The school population is largely middle-class. The attempt to measure concern is undoubtedly ambitious. Yet the need for studies of this kind is so great that the writers wish to offer their results to other persons who are working to collect evidence on the same problem.

Section 1: Weight.—How do these tenth-grade boys and girls see themselves in terms of weight? If they think of themselves as heavy or thin, how do they feel about it? Students were asked to rate themselves both for their entire body and for various sections on a five-point scale: (1) too thin, (2) rather thin, (3) about right, (4) rather heavy, and (5) too heavy. They were also to indicate their degree

of concern on the scale described above.

As shown in Table 1, almost a third of the girls see themselves as heavy (combining "rather heavy" and "too heavy"), with more than half of them expressing some degree of concern. Only 13 per cent of the boys describe themselves in this manner, and little concern is expressed by them. Two-thirds of the boys describe themselves as "about right" compared to 54 per cent of the girls. Boys are more inclined than girls to rate themselves thin, although the girls express more concern over thinness. However, boys show more than seven times as much concern about being thin as about being heavy. Throughout this study, boys are found less expressive of concern than girls.

Boys and girls were also asked to describe themselves in terms of weight of body sections (face, neck, shoulders, chest, abdominal section, hips, upper arm, forearm, upper leg, lower leg, and ankles). When the two positions for heaviness and thinness at either end of the scale were combined, items checked as heavy or thin by as many as 25 per cent of the boys or girls served to reinforce the picture given above. Nearly half the girls (46 per cent) think they have heavy hips. Heavy abdominal sections (43 per cent) and upper legs (38 per cent) rank next. The forearm is the only section marked thin by any sizable number of girls (28 per cent). Supposed heaviness of these parts of the body greatly concerns the girls, just as it does in

reference to the entire body. Of the girls who consider their hips heavy, 64 per cent express concern. Heavy upper legs bother half the girls so describing themselves; heavy mid-regions, a third.

Thinness of body sections is self-assigned by a considerable per cent of the boys, bearing out the inclination noted in the description of the entire body. One-third of the boys consider their upper arms thin; 30 per cent mark themselves as having thin forearms; 27 per cent, thin chests. One section, the mid-region, is marked heavy by a sizable number (28 per cent). Here again, concern is less pronounced for boys than for girls. Heaviness of abdominal sections concerns one-third of the boys so describing themselves; thinness of upper arm, 27 per cent; thinness of chest, 21 per cent; and thinness of forearm, 20 per cent.

The tenth-grade girls in this study tend to think of themselves as heavy, particularly in certain sections of the body. Girls express a high degree of concern about their weight. Boys tend to think they are "about right," with some inclination toward thinness, particularly in upper arms, forearms, and chests. Boys are less expressive of concern about weight than are girls.

Section 2: Height and Proportions.— How do these students see themselves in terms of height and proportions, and how do they feel about their self-conceptions? The questionnaire asked the tenth-graders to describe themselves in terms of a five-point scale for height, width of hips and shoulders, and length of arms, legs, trunk, and feet. The "worry" scale was the same for this section as for the others.

Most of the boys and girls saw themselves as "about average" in height. However, as shown in Table 1,

TABLE 1

PER CENTS OF 580 TENTH-GRADE BOYS AND GIRLS GIVING CERTAIN DESCRIPTIONS OF THEIR PHYSIQUES AND PER CENTS EXPRESSING CONCERN ABOUT THE CHARACTERISTICS DESCRIBED*

DESCRIPTION	PER CENT SO DESCRIBING THEMSELVES		PER CENT EXPRESSING CONCERN	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Thin........	21	16	22	48
Heavy......	13	30	3	55
Short.......	26	27	39	22
Tall........	28	22	4	49
Development early......	19	24	6	15
Development slow......	17	13	40	36

* The table is read as follows: 21 per cent of the boys and 16 per cent of the girls described themselves as thin; 22 per cent of the boys and 48 per cent of the girls so describing themselves expressed concern about this characteristic.

girls were a little more inclined to think of themselves as short, boys as tall. As far as concern was expressed, it centered rather dramatically in tallness for girls (49 per cent of the girls who thought of themselves as tall expressed concern) and in shortness for boys (39 per cent concern). Tall boys felt little concern, not much more than did heavy boys.

The items which attempted to get at possible concerns over proportions revealed little, except that a rather

large number of girls (37 per cent) consider themselves to have wide hips and express a high degree of concern (60 per cent) about it. Such a self-conception and concern with width of hips is undoubtedly related to their consciousness of heaviness in that region, as revealed under weight. Large feet are accepted as their lot by 28 per cent of the girls, with an expressed concern of 37 per cent. Although 35 per cent of the boys think their feet are large, only 10 per cent of these express concern.

Half the tall girls among these tenth-graders are concerned about their height. Nearly 40 per cent of the short boys express concern. These findings are the most significant in this section of the questionnaire.

Section 3: Rate of Development.—How many of these boys and girls think of themselves as slow or fast in development? How concerned are they? Both sexes were asked to describe themselves in terms of total growth. Boys were also asked to rate themselves as to growth of beard, muscular development, and voice change.

Most of these tenth-graders consider themselves average, as will be seen from the percentages for early and slow development given in Table 1. A larger percentage of girls than of boys think their rate early; more boys than girls see themselves as slow-developing. Concern over early development is not too large with either boys or girls, although more than twice as much for girls.

The most significant fact emerging from this section of the study is that 40 per cent of the boys who consider themselves slow-maturing express concern. This is the highest amount of concern expressed by boys, except that over blackheads and pimples. While the slow-developing girls express 36 per cent concern, the fact that boys of this group are even more expressive is highly indicative of the insecurity that faces slow-developing boys, even at the tenth-grade level. In actual per cents of total boys and girls, those who express concern over what they consider their slow rate of development is only 6 per cent. The number is not large, but the concern is great, particularly for boys.

Section 4: Facial Appearance.—How do these boys and girls describe themselves in terms of facial appearance, and how much concerned are they? For each of the 59 items that might be checked, students were asked to mark also the usual five-point scale of concern.

As shown in Table 2, only 17 of the items were marked by as many as 10 per cent of the girls; 18 items by 10 per cent of the boys. In addition to the nine items common to both sexes (blackheads or pimples; heavy eyebrows; freckles; oily skin; scars, birthmarks, moles; glasses; irregular teeth; too long nose; and receding chin), the girls included high forehead, too round face, too homely, dry skin, thin lips, low forehead, too big nose, and odd-shaped nose. The boys listed lack of beard, heavy lips, protruding chin,

ears stick out, heavy beard, dark skin, gaps in teeth, too thin face, and too large ears.

That 57 per cent of both sexes testify to having blackheads and pimples and that both boys and girls are more concerned about the problem than about any other item in the en-

cent. Lack of beard, which a third of the boys acknowledge, causes little "worry," reinforcing what we had found on this item under rate of development.

Apparently, complexion problems form the chief physical worry of these tenth-grade boys and girls. Nothing

TABLE 2

ITEMS OF SELF-DESCRIPTION CHECKED BY 10 PER CENT OR MORE OF 580 TENTH-GRADE BOYS AND GIRLS, WITH AMOUNT OF EXPRESSED CONCERN

BOYS				GIRLS		
Item of Description	Per Cent Checking	Per Cent of Concern		Item of Description	Per Cent Checking	Per Cent of Concern
Blackheads or pimples.....	57	51		Blackheads or pimples...	57	82
Lack of beard............	34	2		Heavy eyebrows.........	24	11
Heavy eyebrows..........	27	1		Freckles................	23	24
Scars, birthmarks, moles...	20	13		Oily skin...............	22	52
Irregular teeth...........	17	39		Scars, birthmarks, moles..	22	30
Heavy lips...............	14	5		Glasses.................	21	31
Protruding chin...........	13	6		High forehead...........	19	8
Ears stick out............	13	6		Too round face..........	19	21
Oily skin.................	12	27		Too homely.............	18	42
Freckles.................	12	....		Dry skin................	16	43
Heavy beard.............	11	13		Irregular teeth..........	16	42
Glasses..................	11	23		Thin lips...............	15	13
Dark skin................	10	4		Low forehead...........	13	3
Receding chin............	10	4		Too long nose...........	11	23
Gaps in teeth............	10	26		Too big nose............	11	44
Too long nose............	10	8		Receding chin...........	10	13
Too thin face............	10	15		Odd-shaped nose........	10	23
Too large ears............	10	8				

tire questionnaire is the outstanding fact revealed by this section. Both boys and girls express considerable concern also about oily skin, irregular teeth, and glasses. Concern is heavy for girls who think they have a nose that is too big, skin that is too dry, or that they are just too homely.

A few other facts are of interest. We note that nearly twice as many girls as boys wear glasses. Boys express no concern about freckles; girls, 24 per

else, in either this or other sections, looms as large in affecting so many and in "worrying" a majority of both boys and girls who are affected.

Section 5: Desire for Self-Improvement.—The fifth part of the questionnaire was designed to find out what tenth-grade boys and girls thought of the desirability of changing themselves. This question was asked: "Would you change your physical self in some way if you could?" As shown

in Table 3, two-thirds of this group said they would.

What kinds of changes are desired? In a second question, students were asked, if they desired change, to specify in what ways. As shown in Table 4, the responses have been broken down and classified for both boys and girls by areas, number of items for each area, percentages, and rank order. However, before examin-

TABLE 3

NUMBER AND PER CENTS OF 580 TENTH-GRADE BOYS AND GIRLS DESIRING SOME CHANGE IN PHYSICAL SELVES

SEX	YES		NO		NO ANSWER		TOTAL	
	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent
Boys...	164	61	92	34	15	5	271	100
Girls...	222	72	60	19	27	9	309	100
Both	386	67	152	26	42	7	580	100

ing the total picture, it may be of interest to look at the desires of each sex separately.

The changes girls want.—Girls are highly specific about the ways in which they would like to change themselves, as the following samples indicate:

My hips and legs are too large and fat. If I could have smaller hips and legs, I'd have a much better figure. I'd also like to be a *little* more developed above the waist than I am, but I am not flat. I wish I didn't have so many pimples or had to wear glasses.

(1) I would make myself thinner. (2) I would make my ears lie back. (3) I would make my forehead lower. (4) I would take away my pimples and make my complexion

clear and soft. (5) I would make my eyes just a little bigger. (6) I would make my feet smaller.

I would first of all change my nose, as it is huge. I think someday I will go to a plastic surgeon and get my nose changed. I would not be so tall. I would like a wider jaw. I thought when I got my teeth straightened my jaw would be wider, but it is still sharp and pointed. I would like a clear, unscarred complexion. I have blackheads and pimples. I may go to a dermatologist. My eyes are small with short lashes. I have many moles, which I saw a doctor about, but they cannot be removed without scars or pits.

I'd have cute legs, a cute figure, and a shorter forehead. I'd also be three inches shorter and have smaller feet. I'd have blue eyes and blond hair fixed in page-boy. I would weigh 101 pounds.

I would rather not wear glasses. I would lose ten pounds. I would like a complexion that stays nice all the time.

When these responses had been itemized and classified, it was plain that the desires of the girls to change were distributed through most of the categories. Since lack of space prohibits the listing of all the items grouped under each category, only the largest clusters can be mentioned.

Under the category Proportions in Table 4, with 122 items, these clusters were slimmer hips (31), smaller feet (24), smaller waist (17), and good shape (16). The major clusters under the category Complexion (109 items) were clear complexion (42), no pimples (21), and no freckles (16). The category Weight (74 items) lent itself to simple subdivision, more slender (50) and fatter (24). Most of the items under the category Hair (62) were

contributed by girls, who wanted to have hair that was dark (15), blond (12), longer (12), or naturally curly (10). Under the category Height (59 items), the girls were chiefly desirous of being shorter (38), although some wished to be taller (17). The chief desire under the category Features (55 items) was to have a nice nose (16) or

I would make my chest bigger than it is now and also my shoulders. I would like to weigh a little bit more, say about twenty to twenty-five pounds more than I do now.

Be bigger and have more muscular development. Be taller and get rid of skin blemishes.

I would make myself look handsomer and not fat. I would have wavy black hair. I would change my whole physical appearance

TABLE 4

AREAS IN WHICH 222 GIRLS AND 164 BOYS IN GRADE X SPECIFY
DESIRE FOR SELF-IMPROVEMENT

CATEGORY	GIRLS			BOYS		
	Number of Items	Per Cent of Items	Rank Order	Number of Items	Per Cent of Items	Rank Order
Proportions........	122	20.6	1	81	24.4	1
Complexion........	109	18.4	2	38	11.4	5
Weight............	74	12.5	3	50	15.1	3
Hair..............	62	10.5	4	14	4.2	7
Height............	59	10.0	5	55	16.6	2
Features..........	55	9.3	6	16	4.8	6
Eyes..............	52	8.8	7	10	3.0	9
Teeth.............	21	3.6	8	11	3.3	8
Daintiness........	13	2.2	9	....	....	....
Strength..........	....	....	....	46	13.9	4
Personal qualities...	9	1.5	10	3	0.9	11
Freedom from disease or deformity.....	1	0.2	11	5	1.5	10
Unclassified.......	15	2.5	....	3	0.9	....
Total..........	592	100.1	....	332	100.0	....

a pretty face (13). The desires under the category Eyes (52 items) centered in no glasses and better vision (21) and blue eyes (12).

The changes boys want.—The questionnaire results consistently revealed that the boys were less expressive than the girls. The boys responded with answers that were analyzed into 332 items, as compared with the 592 of the girls. A few of these statements in their entirety follow:

so that I would be handsome, with a good build.

Well, I would start off by putting on some meat, next would be to get rid of my pimples, then to get some muscles, then to get rid of my glasses.

I would build up my upper arm, forearm, chest, shoulder, and abdomen muscles.

I would be taller, more muscular, slimmer, have better posture, lighter and more slowly-growing head of hair, big, broad shoulders, and heavier calves.

Categories of major importance for boys are shown in Table 4 as being Proportions, Height, Weight, Strength, and Complexion. The clusters of items under each of these reveal the chief concerns. Under Proportions (81 items), the chief clusters are better build (17), broader shoulders (17), and larger chest (11). The category Height (55 items) is singularly centered in becoming taller (51). The items under the category Weight (50) are chiefly for heavier (36). The category Strength (46 items), perhaps poorly balanced by what we have termed "Daintiness" for girls, has two chief clusters, better muscular development (28) and stronger (10). For the boys, only one cluster emerges under the category Complexion (38 items), and that is no pimples (16).

These tenth-graders of both sexes are most conscious of a desire to conform to their conceptions of the ideal physical appearance in the areas of proportions, weight, height, and complexion, with a somewhat different rank order for each sex, chiefly notable for a switch in emphasis on complexion and height. Girls are more aware of complexion problems, boys of stature. In addition, a major category, which is plainly sex-determined, appears for both girls and boys among the top five categories. These categories are hair for girls; strength for boys.

Agreement in categories is not borne out, of course, in the clusters of items under weight and height. Girls desire to be thinner, boys heavier; girls want to be shorter, boys taller. In part, these differences may reflect the fact that girls of this age will be more mature than boys. Probably, the differences are largely differences in the ideal physique held in mind by each sex. An interesting check upon another section of the questionnaire is provided by the fact that proportions here rank first, whereas we had failed to elicit much response from the students for that aspect of Section 2. Our items there were apparently not the right ones.

SUMMARY

In order to collect more information about how adolescents think of themselves physically and how concerned they are over their self-conceptions, the writers questioned one tenth-grade group of 580 students in terms of weight, height and proportions, rate of development, facial appearance, and desire for change. As reported here, the findings seem to justify the following generalizations:

1. The girls in this study are inclined to think of themselves as heavy and to express a high amount of concern about their supposed heaviness. Boys think of themselves as about right in weight but incline toward describing themselves as thin, with considerable concern about thinness in the upper arms and chest.

2. Height concerns chiefly the girls who think of themselves as tall, the boys who consider themselves short. Short boys express what is, for their sex, a high degree of concern.

3. Fewer of these boys and girls consider themselves slow in maturing than think themselves early. Most of them see themselves as average in this

respect. However, among both boys and girls, the slow-maturing children express high concern. This is particularly outstanding among the boys in comparison with other expressions of male concern.

4. Blackheads and pimples are self-ascribed by a majority of the group. The concern of both sexes is higher for this item than for any other item in the entire questionnaire.

5. Two-thirds of these tenth-graders express a desire for some change in themselves physically, with items relating to proportions leading the categories for both sexes. Weight, height, and complexion are the other top areas in which desired change is common to both boys and girls.

IMPLICATIONS

As an aid toward more effective teaching and counseling, these chief generalizations and some of the other findings seem to suggest a number of guidelines to the writers and to other persons working in biology, health, guidance, and over-all curriculum development in this particular high school. Perhaps some of these tentative proposals for action will interest other educational workers.

1. What is being taught about the normality of weight and height range should be reviewed to find out whether it is sufficiently helpful. Attention needs to be given particularly to nutrition instruction for girls in this age group, who may be attempting to do something on their own about their supposed overweight.

2. Present instruction in the process of maturation needs to be reviewed to see whether it begins early enough to give fullest guidance and continues long enough to deal with the fears of slow-maturing children, particularly boys.

3. More attention needs to be given in Grade X to complexion disorders—their causes and treatment. This problem looms as a major concern of this age group. Ways in which to help need to be studied broadly by the school.

4. Tenth-graders may profit from help in looking at the ways in which they have gained their conceptions of the ideal physique—as revealed by their statements of changes that they would like to make in themselves. Advertising, as well as movies and novels, may come under discussion.

5. Autobiographical documents, in which younger and older adults report methods they have used to adjust to concerns about physique, are being collected in evening classes of adults by Mrs. Lillian Whitney, director of the psychology department of Phoenix College. These documents promise to provide a rich resource for helping tenth-graders gain perspective.

6. The possibility of devising from this study an instrument for self-assessment of the physique should be explored. Perhaps the health-counseling of biology teachers would be better directed if each student were provided with a form on which he could describe himself physically and tell how he feels about what he thinks he is.

THE NEED TO STUDY THE COMPONENTS OF CLASSROOM EFFICIENCY

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THERE IS AN UNDERSTANDABLE antipathy on the part of teachers toward rushing the development of an individual's education in the humanities, but teachers everywhere have an interest in any attempt at streamlining the teaching of skills and tool subjects. With the exception of the service academies and war colleges, all military training is limited to the cultivation of functional skills and the mastery of functional subject matter. Speed, effective speed, is demanded in the classroom as well as in the field or in the air. The effort to accelerate technical training in the military services provides convenient examples of the need and opportunities for accelerating the classroom process.

NEED FOR EFFICIENCY IN MILITARY TRAINING PROGRAMS

In times of peace, there is the practical consideration that every day saved in training a man is a day gained in the service the man can perform. A radar mechanic spends forty-two weeks in school beyond the period of basic training. He is in school fully one-third of the time he contracts to serve the peacetime Air Force.

But paramount to peacetime manpower considerations is the constant urge for readiness to meet emergency demands. Rocket by rocket, jet by jet, and cathode by cathode, the soldier's job gets more technical. He has more and more to learn, and the modern military tempo affords less and less time in which to learn it.

Technological advances and the resulting development of equipment may reduce the number of men required, but such developments demand more technical knowledge on the part of the reduced number of men. Weeks can be cut from the weather-observer course in the Air Force Technical School, Chanute Air Base, Illinois, because electronic equipment has taken over some of the observing duties. However, each radar device which reduces the number of men required for observing duty adds the requirement for one man with the advanced technical knowledge necessary for installation and maintenance of the device.

For example, less than three years ago, the weather observer determined height of the lowest cloud level by releasing a hydrogen-filled balloon and timing its flight to the point at which it disappeared; or he determined the angle subtended by the horizon and a line of sight to a spot of light projected on the cloud, then referred to trigonometric tables to solve for the altitude. Now, however, he reads the height of the lowest cloud level directly from an indicator (ceilometer) inside the station which continuously translates in terms of altitude the time required for a radiation of small wave-length to be reflected to earth by the lower surface of the cloud.

Thus, hours that were spent in teaching a number of men to read the clinometer and tables of data are saved; but days and months are added to the training of one man who must maintain the electronic ceilometer—and the rawinsonde, the facsimile set, and the other radio and radar equipment. What more can be done to speed the classroom process for this man? What can be done to make the classroom presentation an efficient transfer of information?

MEANS FOR ACCELERATED TRAINING

The Air Force was commended during the war years for developing a training system that made a combat pilot out of a college Sophomore in six months. All the military services accelerated technical training at a remarkable rate. There were several means for increasing the training tempo. More class hours a day reduced the number of days needed to cover the material. That procedure was simple to practice, but other and more novel means were used.

Trainees were screened by scientifically developed tests. Subject matter was stripped to functional essentials. Objectives were always immediate and concrete. Experienced teachers of many subjects, some not remotely related to mathematics and physics, were instructed in the vital elements of navigation, meteorology, or ballistics and then given the duty of conducting classes of aircrew trainees over the same minimum academic route. With the help of films, charts, models, and self-teaching textbooks, which were produced in profusion, even inexperienced teachers did creditable jobs.

The relative importance of the factors which contribute to accelerated training is indicated in a report prepared for the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Education Programs.[1] A check list of ten characteristics often mentioned with regard to wartime training in the military services was evaluated by 258 individuals who had served as instructors, supervisors, or psychologists in the training program of one of the services. The evaluator checked each feature that he had observed in his armed services experience. The list

[1] M. M. Chambers, *Opinions on Gains for American Education from Wartime Armed Services Training*, p. 15. Washington: American Council on Education, 1946.

in Table 1 ranks each characteristic in the order of frequency of affirmative checks. Ranking first on the list is the use of visual aids. Ranking lowest among ten are two features which have to do with the teacher as a source of information.

Much credit for the success of the program of accelerated military training is given to the extensive use of visual aids. Army training authorities

celerated training, it is, nevertheless, apparent that many visual aids, perhaps most films, were prepared with more of an eye to showmanship than to instructional effect. Whatever instructional effect there was—and unquestionably the effect was great—it probably resulted more from an intuitive application of principles of learning than from a concerted attention to the learner's task.

TABLE 1

CHARACTERISTICS OBSERVED MOST FREQUENTLY IN ARMED
SERVICES TRAINING PROGRAMS

Characteristic	Frequency of Affirmatives	Characteristic	Frequency of Affirmatives
1. More and better use of visual aids.	238	6. Better classroom discipline......	177
2. Clarity and definiteness of aims...	224	7. Short intensive courses open to students qualified and wanting them	160
3. More "learning by performance"..	219	8. Small classes and individual work	147
4. Eliminating nonessential content.	205	9. More in-service teacher training.	143
5. More frequent achievement testing	185	10. Helpful supervision of instruction	142

accepted, "lamp, lens, and sound track," the conclusions arrived at by the audio-visual education enthusiasts of the preceding two decades. But in their enthusiasm for the potentialities of this method of instruction, these authorities sometimes overlooked the complex and varied factors that must interact to make a successful learning situation. This enthusiasm led, on occasion, to the planning of efficient instruction merely in terms of efficient machinery.

While it may be granted that the profusion of illustrated textbooks, models, devices, and films contributed significantly to the success of the ac-

An Air Force research report describes the situation:

AAF training films during the war were for the most part written in the form of scripts by professional screen writers and supervised by motion-picture producers. The instructors who were to use the films were represented only by a "technical adviser" for any given production, the title being the same as was customary in commercial studios. The experience which the writers brought to this task was principally gained from the writing of screen plays. This situation was inevitable, since script writing was an art with which few educators were familiar. But it had the effect of making the training films somewhat more like screen plays and somewhat less like teaching ses-

sions than they would otherwise have been.[2]

The wartime armed forces training program, then, can be summed up in this fashion:

Abler students were taught *less information* over *longer hours* a day in *fewer days* with *better teaching aids* in the hands of *more instructors* with *limited qualifications*.

That the procedure for acceleration was successful, and remarkably so, is not to be doubted. It may be doubted, however, that the acceleration resulted from an accent on the instructor's classroom method, unless the use of visual aids may be called a method.

SEARCH FOR COMPONENTS OF A SUCCESSFUL CLASSROOM PRESENTATION

Blame for instructional faults in the Air Force training aids may be placed, in part, with the professional artists and professional motion-picture producers in the Training Aids Division. Still, most of the blame for any ineffective training aid and any ineffectual classroom presentation, whether in a military or a civilian school, can perhaps be laid to a regrettable lack of knowledge of the elements of a classroom learning situation which control effectiveness. Herbart, over a century ago, regretted that it was im-

possible "to determine with some certainty concerning even a single instruction period what in it was done aright and what amiss."[3] Herbart's complaint is scarcely less pertinent today.

Investigators have practically atomized the teacher's personality, education, and experience in relation to both subjective and objective measures of teaching success. Millions of words have been methodically counted in reconstructing the system, or lack of system, by which a child builds a vocabulary or in determining word frequencies in various categories of conversation and writing. Printed materials are measured for "readability." But few investigators seem to have undertaken seriously the task of analyzing a classroom presentation into its sign elements—the elements in the system of communication through which the student gets the information which the teacher presents.

Although Ogden and Richards were directing attention mainly to the general problem people have of understanding one another's words, it is hoped that their recommendation "to raise the level of communication through a direct study of its conditions, its dangers, and its difficulties"[4] will receive the attention of the educa-

[2] James J. Gibson (editor), *Motion Picture Testing and Research*, p. 260. Army Air Force Aviation Psychology Program Research Report No. 7. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1947.

[3] Johann Friedrich Herbart, *Herbart's A B C of Sense-Impression*, p. 72. Translated by W. J. Eckoff. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1896.

[4] C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards, *The Meaning of Meaning*, p. x. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1938 (revised).

tor as well as the philologist. The educator, however, must go further than the study of language. He should investigate not only the language signs but the power of every element of the presentation which serves to communicate information.

Techniques of experimentation, refinement of statistical tests, and development of means for visual and verbal recording have surely reached a stage that makes possible a rigorous study of elements of composition, both verbal and visual, that are common in some degree to any teaching presentation. There are statistical tools and experimental techniques available for isolating one among a number of the many variables in a normal classroom situation. Actual classroom presentations can now be dissected and each element assayed for its contribution in communicating the information presented. Experimentation in this manner may finally "determine with some certainty" what "was done aright and what amiss." Teachers everywhere, whether with military or with civilian training responsibilities, will recognize the means to attempt truly effective streamlining of the classroom presentation structure.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF RESEARCH IN BIBLIOTHER-
APY TO THE LANGUAGE-ARTS PROGRAM. II

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A THEORY OF BIBLIOTHERAPY and its possible values and a bibliography of writings on the subject were presented in the first part of this article, which appeared in last month's issue of the *School Review*. Part II presents a digest of the research on bibliotherapy and suggests implications for practice and further research.

RESEARCH AND PROFESSIONAL LITERATURE ON BIBLIOTHERAPY

The scanty literature available on bibliotherapy gives theories of the process and leads for further research, but it contains few definitive answers for teachers, librarians, psychologists, and psychiatrists. Many of the articles have been written for and by librarians and others working with patients in general and mental hospitals, and these efforts are largely descriptive rather than experimental. In educational literature, studies of the relationships between reading difficulties and personality maladjustments have been summarized by Gates (24), by Wilking (73), and by Russell (52). Russell points out that evidence of the positive effects of reading is largely lacking. Most of the writing summarized below deals with hypotheses about the process of bibliotherapy. A few illustrations of the use of bibliotherapy in case-study approaches to research in medical institutions, in libraries, and in schools can be given.

General summaries of research in bibliotherapy.—These studies are limited in scope and content. In a pioneer volume in 1923 Jones (30) discussed uses of books in hospital libraries and gave classified reading lists. Bryan later wrote a series of three articles (10, 11, 12) which developed a theory of bibliotherapy and gave steps needed to make it a more exact science. While most writers use the term with reference to mental-hygiene literature and to books of a didactic nature concerned with adjustment, personality, child-rearing, and similar topics, Bryan includes the whole range of literature—novels, plays, poetry, re-

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ligion, art, and scientific books—in the materials to be used in bibliotherapy. Schneck (58) gave one of the most complete lists of bibliographies for use in bibliotherapy, but he confined his account largely to materials for use in general hospitals and with neuropsychiatric patients. Other lists have been developed by Appel (5), the Elliotts (21), and Levine (34). Tyson (69) reviewed some of the recent writing on bibliotherapy before analyzing the content of mental-hygiene textbooks, popular books, and a popular journal on personal adjustment. Shrodes (62) listed 113 items in her study developing a theory of bibliotherapy and applying it in case studies of college students.

General descriptions.—A number of studies related more or less closely to the field of bibliotherapy are also available. A pioneer investigation by Downey (18) attempted to divide readers into three main categories: persons who are detached, impersonal *spectators* as they read; persons who are *participants* as they read, becoming deeply involved in the emotions and situations of the story; and persons who become emotionally involved but are *philosophers* about the story because their projections are not egocentric so much as mature reactions to the story.

In a summary of the first years of development of projective methods of studying personality, Sargent (56) includes some references on drama, story-telling, and language in relation to personality which have implications for bibliotherapy. Although not strictly research, Rosenblatt's exploratory work (51) contains many ideas fundamental to a theory of bibliotherapy. Waples and Others (71) have also studied the influences of reading upon people from a somewhat different point of view from the one expressed in the first part of this discussion. Gray (27) has summarized thirty studies dealing with the effects of reading on information and beliefs, attitudes and morale, public opinion, voting, crime, and antisocial behavior. Carlsen (14), in a study of the influence of reading upon attitudes, found that white adolescents at the eleventh-grade level vary in their reactions to stories about Negroes in terms of their previous attitudes to Negroes. In a study somewhat more closely related to the present theme, Loban (36) reviews some of the previous work in bibliotherapy as background for his comparison of the responses to ten literary selections made by two groups of adolescents who were rated as extremely high and low in their capacity for sympathy. His study emphasizes the need of adolescents for a teacher's help in discussing the significant causes underlying behavior and events in a story.

Medical uses.—Medical explorations (rather than experiments) in bibliotherapy seem to be the most numerous group described in the literature. Schneck (57) has described the bibliotherapy project which has been

operating at the Menninger Foundation in Topeka, Kansas, for several years. Earlier, Menninger (43) described briefly a few examples of bibliotherapy, and Schneck (59) has reported on two other cases from this clinic. Some early reports (16) on the use of bibliotherapy in United States Veterans Hospitals are available, and more information should be forthcoming from this source. Bradley and Bosquet (9) advised physicians on the use of books for children, suggested four therapeutic uses of literature, and attached a short bibliography of useful stories and books.

As a result of experience in using mental-hygiene literature, rather than imaginative literature, Gottschalk (26) believes that patients with mild psychoneurotic disturbances are more likely to be helped by supervised reading than are severely disturbed or psychotic patients. Gagnon (23) disagrees with Gottschalk and emphasizes the danger in furnishing early and mild cases of schizophrenia with books which might facilitate their flights from reality. However, he states that reading may have sedative effects on persons in moderate manic or excitable states. Smith and Twyeffort (66) believe that many maladjustments are due to ignorance or inaccurate knowledge and, therefore, recommends books with mental-hygiene content. Moore (45) describes work with adolescents. After giving early examples of bibliotherapy in hospitals and in the Delaware Human Relations classes,

he describes two cases in which "the data . . . presented give us a glimpse of a technique of great therapeutic importance" (45:232).

A number of the reports cited are of interest to librarians. These include the writings of Jones (30), of Bryan (10, 11, 12) and of Schneck (57, 59), mentioned above, and another article in which Quint (49) points out the values of reading in a total program of maintaining contact with reality. Although not research, librarians may be interested in anthologies, such as those of Shrodes, Van Gundy, and Husband (63) and of Strode (68), which are collected for the purpose of giving psychological and sociological insights through literature. A few studies of the use of the library to influence specific attitudes are available, such as Jackson's investigation (29) of the attitudes of white children in Atlanta, Georgia, toward Negro children before and after reading material dealing with Negro children.

Educational applications.—Studies dealing with the positive use of literature in school situations for therapy are likewise meager, although a beginning in experimentation is evident. In addition to Loban's work (36), an early study by Lind (35) gives reports obtained through interview and written document of what thirty adults thought the four main values of reading were to them as children. Russell's more recent study (54) of 680 teachers' memories of books read as children found a variety of remem-

bered effects, including identification with characters, enjoyment of humor and fantasy, enrichment of everyday experiences, imitation of activities as in dramatic play, and added knowledge of facts.

Articles by Sister Mary Agnes (40, 41) and the investigation by Sister Lorang (37) developed some hypotheses which require further investigation. Sister Mary Agnes found some improvement in the adjustments of four out of five children in the upper elementary grades after the reading of four or five books, although only one of the five children saw any connection between his own problems and those of the characters in the books. Sister Lorang used a questionnaire to get the opinions of 2,308 high-school students, in eight schools, about specific books and magazines that they had read and the effects of this reading on them. Fifty-three per cent of the group said they had tried to act like a character in a book and 21 per cent like a character in a magazine.

A publication by Kircher (32), influenced by the work of Moore (45), emphasizes the dynamic character of the reading process and its help in emotional adjustment. Unlike some other writers, Kircher believes literature may produce a delayed response, that solutions contained in it may be utilized a considerable time after the reading. She also gives an annotated bibliography of children's stories and adds the principles or solutions which they may contain for children reading them.

Smith (67) reviewed some of the research on the personal and social influences of reading and reported a study in which teachers asked 502 children in Grades IV through VIII if they remembered any book, story, or poem which had changed their thinking in any way. About 60 per cent of the group reported changes in attitude, but only 9 per cent changes in behavior as a result of reading; 30 per cent told of changes in thinking as a result of new or enlarged concepts obtained through reading.

Another study of a different sort, based on the hypothesis that reading has direct influence on attitudes and adjustments of children, is that of Child and Others (15) who analyzed a group of third-grade textbooks in reading for the social ideas and stereotypes contained in them. The study offers no proof that children are affected by reading such textbooks, but it is useful in pointing out the middle-class backgrounds of the books and in listing some of the ideas implied which teachers often take for granted without examining them critically. Using a somewhat similar method, Wenzel (72) applied the ideas of Rosenblatt (51) and of Sample (55) in analyzing certain children's stories. The illustrations are useful examples of how a teacher, a librarian, or small groups may analyze fictional materials to find ideas implicit in them which may be more or less unconsciously absorbed into children's attitudes.

The values of literature in inducting the child into his culture have

been investigated by the Shaftels (61), who made an exploratory study of the use of problem stories based upon the developmental tasks of middle childhood. After reading and discussing the stories, the children were given opportunity to act out their solutions. Other references to psychodrama are given in the summary by Sargent (56). The use of reading in conjunction with psychodrama and sociodrama to arrive at the solution of children's problems would seem to be a fruitful lead for further research and practice.

Although not conducted in the school situation, procedures used by Panken (48) seemed to show the usefulness of bibliotherapy with a group of juvenile delinquents for whom psychotherapy was unavailable. In children's letters to the judge—letters answered by him personally—there was some evidence that carefully selected books may stimulate healthy identifications, alter antisocial attitudes, and ameliorate the effects of a bad environment.

Not all the writing on bibliotherapy is as positive about its benefits as are the studies mentioned above. For example, Goldsmith (25) found that children are not usually able to draw inferences from fables. Therefore, the belief that fables are concrete examples of abstract truths, useful in character education, may be seriously questioned. Russell (53) suggests that literature can be expected to influence adjustments only if the children are able to read easily and well, if wide varieties of suitable materials are available, if a permissive reading environment exists, and if school and community experiences reinforce the reading. The importance of a permissive environment and of an opportunity to manipulate the elements of a reading situation toward several possible interpretations or reconstructions is suggested by Husband (28). He also states:

> In the degree that a reading situation exerts a compulsion toward preciseness in interpretation, it tends to create a negative response, which diminishes with the progressive development of reading maturity or sophistication [28: 266].

In a study of the effects of reading a novel on a tenth-grade group, Meckel (42) is cautious of expecting positive effects automatically to follow reading. He states that his findings do not justify concluding that a pupil having tensions and anxieties may be given a novel which deals with the same tensions and anxieties and expecting therapeutic results to follow automatically. On the contrary, the data suggest that these anxieties, if they are serious, may tend to repress and to block the desired response to the very situations and ideas having potential therapeutic value.

Auerbach makes somewhat the same point in connection with mental-hygiene literature:

> Each book is read . . . by a specific individual who brings to the book he is reading his own complex reactions and biases, based on his particular needs. . . .
>
> The more mature the reader is, the more he will pick what he needs or distort what

he reads to fit his emotional needs [7 : 40, 54].

The literature on bibliotherapy contains both research evidence and opinion which should act as a brake on undue claims for the process. Apparently, there is no guaranty that a particular piece of literature will influence a certain child or adolescent or that an influence, if it exists, will operate in the direction desired.

IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Need for validation.—The positive values claimed for bibliotherapy in certain studies and the reservations about it raised in others point clearly to the necessity of validating the procedure experimentally. From at least the days of the Greeks, great teachers have always used literature in attempts to influence their pupils' attitudes and ideals. Nearly all the studies cited above claim some influence on the adjustments of the persons who have read prescribed books or stories, but these claims have not always been validated by study of the later behavior of the patient or pupil. One attempt to validate the process has been made by Tyson (69) who sought the opinions of authors, analysts, and college undergraduates regarding the value of bibliotherapy. Six of the eight psychoanalysts favored it as an adjunct to individual treatment. There was a general consensus that reading has value as a source of information and as reassurance for persons with mild personality disorders. Obviously,

much more work in the validation of the process of bibliotherapy is needed.

Extension into schools.—Besides lack of validation, another limitation evident in the literature is the paucity of work with the average or the mildly disturbed person outside the clinic or hospital. Several writers suggest that bibliotherapy is more likely to be successful with younger people; several, that it is most applicable in cases of only mild disturbance. The implications for schools and colleges, with their facilities for recommending books and discussing them in group-guidance situations, would seem to be fairly clear. In this practice, limitations, such as reading ability of pupils and home and community influences, must also be recognized. But work so far done in the field indicates the possibility that literature can be used most effectively not in institutions for the mentally ill but in schools where it is possible to influence the adjustment of the so-called "normal" child or youth.

Types of reading.—A third implication for research and practice concerns the values of imaginative versus didactic and factual literature. A number of analysts cited above prescribe factual books for their patients and, in truth, believe that these are best for the individual who needs more contact with reality. On the other hand, psychiatrists and psychologists admit that great artists are penetrating interpreters of the human personality. Since the great writer has the power to understand, describe, and project to the

reader some phase of personality, he should be enlisted as an ally in diagnosis and therapy. There are some suggestions that admonitory, prescriptive reading is largely an intellectual exercise whereas the identification, projection, and other mechanisms involved in reading imaginative literature may incorporate into the reading situation the emotional behavior associated with most maladjustment. A further possibility is that *both* factual and fictional materials are useful, depending upon the particular needs of the individual, and, therefore, that the teacher's or librarian's task is to find some balance between these types of material.

Use of literature in appraising personality.—A fourth implication for research concerns the values of literature in assessment of personality or diagnosis of personality difficulties. Some skilful language-arts teachers study a pupil's reading interests. If they find that these deviate widely from the norm of the group in which the child or adolescent is found, they gain information about that pupil. The current interest in projective techniques suggests that research might go much further in using reactions to pieces of literature as one means of studying personality. If individual perception of ink blots or vague pictures can give such clues, reactions to selections from literature would seem to be a fruitful source of study of personality.

Bibliotherapy in clinical treatment.— A fifth implication for research concerns the use of bibliotherapy in clinical situations. There is some evidence that bibliotherapy makes for economy of time and effort in that an individual may be reading and thinking about his problems when he is away from the clinic or therapist. In view of present shortages of skilled clinical workers and the very recent establishment of such services by some school systems, research on bibliotherapy as a facilitation of treatment should be undertaken.

Relations between reading materials and the reader.—A final implication for research is of especial concern to school people. Bibliotherapy may be regarded as only one phase of a larger-scale study of relationships between reading materials and the reader. In the past, literature has been studied in terms of its own structure and in terms of the person producing it. The time is long overdue for comprehensive studies of the *effects* of literature upon the reader. In such studies, bibliotherapy will have an important place because certain characteristics and effects may be observed more easily in the somewhat extreme cases involved in bibliotherapy. Research on bibliotherapy should, therefore, prove fruitful of hypotheses to be tested with children and adolescents in ordinary classroom situations.

SUGGESTIONS FOR LIBRARIANS AND TEACHERS

In addition to the six implications for research, a number of suggestions arising out of the literature concern

more directly the work of librarians and language-arts teachers.

Matching reading with the difficulty.—One problem is: What kind of story for what kind of difficulty? Should the adolescent with parent-child problems be advised to read a story of family conflict, or must he be approached more indirectly? Will the quiet, recessive boy profit by reading about a person like himself or an extroverted, popular adolescent? In one clinic Menninger (43) finds it impractical to prescribe books on the basis of one diagnostic category, of etiological factors, or of type of personality. Rather, the individual's present psychological status, his emotional state, the amount of his withdrawal from reality, and his ability to profit from reading are taken into account.

The answer for teachers or librarians, then, is not clear cut. The recommendation of pleasant, cheerful books instead of stories dealing with emotionally disturbed characters, morbid themes, or unhappy endings may seem to be a good beginning for a child or youth who is himself unhappy and disturbed, but at some later time, perhaps, he will need to read stories which deal more directly with his problem. Perhaps the child or adolescent who has already built fairly satisfactory psychological defenses should not be forced to tear these down because of a more direct discussion of his problems in literature. The teacher or librarian can, at best, work on an experimental basis, trying different sorts of stories and giving opportunities for discussing and restructuring these in the group situation, with perhaps deeper analysis in individual interviews.

Involvement of entire language-arts program.—This suggestion merges into the one given by Husband (28), the Shaftels (61), and others that children and youth need opportunities to discuss a character, to disagree with a solution, to dramatize or act out their own solutions. Thus, not only the literature period but the whole language-arts program is involved. The modern teacher uses the child's or adolescent's problems as one source of motivation for writing a personal letter or history for the teacher, not something shared with the whole group. Through this personal writing, the teacher's and pupil's insight into a problem may be increased. The teacher may become less concerned with split infinitives and more concerned with split personality; unity and coherence in the paragraph may become subordinated to unity and coherence of the self.

The teaching of reading.—There are also implications from bibliotherapy for the teaching of reading. A child or adolescent must be able to read rather easily the material presented to him if identification and positive emotional response are to develop, but the teaching of reading cannot stop at accurate word recognition or even at comprehension. Particularly in the upper-elementary and the secondary-school grades, the dynamic nature of the reading of literature must be con-

sidered by the teacher. The selective nature of perception and cognition, the fact that even young children may discover in reading what they want to discover needs further emphasis in the whole program of reading instruction. Crossen (17), for example, has shown that a group of ninth- and tenth-grade pupils unfavorable to the Negro make lower scores on a critical reading test based on materials about Negroes than a similar group with indifferent (neither favorable nor unfavorable) attitudes toward the Negro.

The teaching of reading, at least beyond the initial learning stages, must be directed not only toward accuracy and objectivity but also toward positive emotional values. Children and adolescents need many opportunities to use their reading in creative ways for enrichment of their experience and better understanding of themselves and others.

Cautions for teachers.—A few writers and speakers have suggested recently that the language-arts teacher should not attempt bibliotherapy, that it is too difficult and dangerous a process to be tried out by untrained persons. The writers of this article have some sympathy for this point of view. They are aware that few teachers are trained therapists. They are equally aware, however, that most psychologists and psychotherapists have no final answers to problems of influencing human adjustment, that experimentation is needed in attempting to meet personal needs of children and adolescents

as well as adults. It seems that bibliotherapy offers one such experimental approach, particularly when correlated with other procedures attempting to improve insight and adjustment. These two articles have emphasized, furthermore, the planned use of literature with the so-called "normal" child, the individual whose problems and tensions are the usual developmental ones rather than deep-seated conflicts. In such cases the dangers of using emotionally charged literature should be less.

But even to attempt bibliotherapy on this level, the teacher must have certain resources. In addition to those mentioned in previous statements, he must know a wide range of books—books which illustrate the ideas to be presented to the child or adolescent. Wide reading of stories for youth should be supplemented by knowledge of books about juvenile literature, such as Eaton's *Reading with Children* (20), Duff's *Bequest of Wings* (19), Arbuthnot's *Children and Books* (6), Smith's chapter on "Guiding Individual Reading" (64), and even Lenrow's *Reader's Guide to Prose Fiction* (33). Teachers in both elementary and secondary schools will find particularly helpful the publications *Literature for Human Understanding* (3) and *Reading Ladders for Human Relations* (4). A group of teachers may build similar lists to fit the needs and problems of youth in a particular community.

In addition to knowing books, the teacher must know the child or adoles-

cent. He must be aware of the usual characteristics of children of the age level with which he is working and recognize any deviations from the usual shown by an individual or group. He will profit by knowing something of the individual's abilities and interests; by knowing the pattern of the child's reading interests in relation to the rest of his group; by having some personal reports from the pupil about his family, his activities, and his ambitions; by observing his behavior in classroom, in informal groups, or on the playground. As time and energy permit, the teacher must have informal interviews with the pupil, both before and after bibliotherapy is begun. In beginning the process, he will know enough about the child or adolescent to suggest a story in which identification is often pleasant and easy.

This knowledge of books, plus knowledge of children or adolescents, puts such a burden on the teacher that once again the process of bibliotherapy seems impossibly difficult. But what language-arts teacher can teach without knowing something about books and about children? The knowledge and understanding are there for any

good teacher; it is simply a case of directing them along a channel leading to therapy through literature. Furthermore, in most schools the sole responsibility does not rest upon the teacher. The best approach to bibliotherapy is often a co-operative approach involving the teacher, the librarian, the school counselor or psychologist, and others who know the child well. An occasional case conference of such persons to discuss the individual and suggest reading and other therapeutic measures is desirable.

Finally, bibliotherapy may be conceived as an attempt to unite practices in education, in clinical work, and in mental hygiene. Teachers of the language arts and of psychology may use bibliotherapy to illustrate ideas common to both fields. Clinical workers may use it with economy for diagnosis, prognosis, and therapy. Mental-hygiene experts may include it in an expanding program of positive mental health and prevention of mental disorders. Research and practice are urgently needed in schools and other institutions if this new technique for human welfare is to become generally available.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ORGANIZA-
TION AND ADMINISTRATION OF
SECONDARY EDUCATION[1]

PAUL B. JACOBSON AND ROBERT R. WIEGMAN
University of Oregon

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THE NUMBER OF ARTICLES published in the area of secondary-school organization and administration during the year covered by this bibliography precludes listing all those of merit.

The articles that are included are, in the opinion of the compilers, representative of the material published during the twelve-month period from July, 1949, through June, 1950.

ORGANIZATION

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

501. ABBOTT, ROBERT B. "What Are the Characteristics of a Modern Junior High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (March, 1950), 4–9.

Points out that the modern junior high school is geared to early adolescent youth's needs and suggests ways of filling those needs.

502. LAUCHNER, A. H. "What Are the Characteristics of a Modern Junior High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (March, 1950), 10–16.

Suggests answers to two questions: (1) What should a junior high school have as its goal? (2) How may these goals be implemented?

JUNIOR COLLEGE

503. BOGUE, JESSE P., and HILL, SHIRLEY S. "Analysis of Junior College Growth," *Junior College Journal*, XX (February, 1950), 317–26.

Reports on the number of colleges, enrolment trends, institutional changes, size of colleges, accreditation, and types of organization and analyzes general trends in the junior colleges.

504. DIEKHOFF, JOHN S. *Democracy's College*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1950. Pp. xii+208.

States that the local public college has a peculiar opportunity to make more and more knowledge available to more and more people. Examines the areas in which the local college is able to fulfil a unique function.

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[1] EDITOR'S NOTE: Since the number of issues of the *School Review* has been reduced from ten to nine a year, it is necessary to rearrange the lists of selected references. Consequently, the two lists on the organization of secondary education and the administration of secondary education, which formerly appeared in the October and November numbers of the journal, respectively, will from now on be combined into one list in the October issue.

505. FIELDS, RALPH R., and PIKE, ARTHUR H. "Community College Problems," *Teachers College Record*, LI (May, 1950), 528–36.

Defines the work of community-college administrators and instructors.

506. LINDSAY, FRANK B. "What Are the Functions of a Community College?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (March, 1950), 268–74.

States that the community college has been created to give young and older adults the services they need.

507. McGRATH, EARL JAMES. "The Junior College and Educational Opportunity in the United States," *Junior College Journal*, XX (May, 1950), 505–12.

Considers the type of education the junior college ought to offer in extending the education of the average American youth to fourteen years.

508. McINTIRE, WAYNE F. "What Are Current Trends in Junior College Programs?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (March, 1950), 24–27.

Identifies the areas in which the interests of the junior colleges are to be found.

509. REYNOLDS, JAMES W. "When To Build a Community College," *School Executive*, LXIX (December, 1949), 51.

Contends that the desirability of establishing a community college depends on availability of staff and facilities, sufficient number of potential students, and ability of the community to finance the program.

ARTICULATION

510. HOUSTON, VICTOR M. "What about Articulation of Secondary School and College?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (March, 1950), 149–56.

Presents guiding principles and recommendations regarding the establishment of improved relations between secondary schools and colleges.

511. JENKINS, LEO W. "High Schools Can Reduce Freshmen Failures in College," *Nation's Schools*, XLIV (December, 1949), 50–51.

States that success in college depends on other factors in addition to academic preparation and that high-school faculty members might well consider evaluating the efficiency of their schools' college-preparatory program in the light of ten questions which the writer poses.

512. TAYLOR, SAMUEL L. "Upper and Lower Schools Meet," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XXVII (December, 1949), 21–23.

Proposes possible solutions to the problem of satisfactorily adjusting the seventh-graders to the junior high school program.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

513. GREGORY, RAYMOND W. "Vocational Education and Life Adjustment," *Agricultural Education Magazine*, XXII (August, 1949), 28.

Analyzes the opportunities inherent in vocational education for making a contribution to the realization of the objectives of the life-adjustment education program.

514. MARTIN, V. G. "Vocational Agriculture in the Public Schools," *Education*, LXX (September, 1949), 37–42.

Points out that the improved status of today's farmer is largely due to the education he has received. Traces the growth and progress of vocational education in agriculture.

515. SHATTUCK, EDWARD A. "A Curricular View of Industrial Education," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XXXIX (April, 1950), 147–49.

Summarizes the aims and objectives of the industrial-arts program.

516. WENRICH, RALPH C. "An Agreement on Education for Earning a Living," *Nation's Schools*, XLV (May, 1950), 48.

Attempts to clarify the relationship of education for occupational competence to the total school program.

ADULT EDUCATION

517. HARE, GENEVIEVE, and ANDERSON, HELEN. "Don't Be Afraid of Adults," *Practical Home Economics*, XXVIII (March, 1950), 122, 148.

Proposes methods of arousing interest in an adult-education program and makes suggestions on organizing the classes.

518. HOULE, CYRIL O. "Teach the Grown-ups, Too," *Montana Education*, XXVI (December, 1949), 8, 26.

Claims that every adult person should be in school and discusses methods used in bringing adults into the school program.

519. JOHNSON, JANET BASSETT. "Reading Clinic for Adults," *Clearing House*, XXIV (December, 1949), 195–98.

Explains the methods used, and the results achieved, in a reading clinic conducted for adults whose ages ranged from eighteen to fifty-five years.

520. KEMPFER, HOMER H. "Sound State Policy in Public School Adult Education," *Adult Education Bulletin*, XIV (October, 1949), 12–15.

Presents the opinions of ten state directors of general adult education on the proposition: "What policies lead to the soundest development of adult education in the public schools of a state?"

521. "The Role of Adult Education in Community Development: A Conference Report," *Teachers College Record*, LI (October, 1949), 22–25.

Directs attention to two areas: (1) community needs which can be met or studied by adults through organized educational programs; (2) types of lay and professional leadership needed in making any adult-education program effective.

522. SCHINNERER, MARK C. "Current Adult Education Needs," *Adult Education Bulletin*, XIV (December, 1949), 51–54.

Suggests three problems which must continue to command attention and poses questions raised by consideration of these problems.

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

523. ANDERSON, VIVIENNE. "Lights on Nightly in Wilmington Schools," *Clearing House*, XXIV (February, 1950), 331–34.

Describes the program of the Wilmington (Delaware) public schools, whose policy is to open the school buildings every night of the school week for any and all community uses.

524. BROWN, CARL F. "A Rural Community Goes to School," *Educational Leadership*, VII (February, 1950), 307–11.

Reports some of the ways in which faculty and parents in a rural consolidated school share common responsibilities.

525. FONTAINE, ANDRE. "Everybody's School," *National Parent-Teacher*, XLIV (September, 1949), 10–13.

Cites examples of how schools can make full use of community talent.

526. HASKEW, L. D. "A People-built Education," *School Executive*, LXIX (March, 1950), 11–14.

Contends that, when the people participate in school planning, the school's program is vitalized.

527. HAYES, WILL. "Educational Lighthouse," *NEA Journal*, XXXIX (March, 1950), 196–97.

Cites one California district as an example of what an adequate amount of money, wisely spent, can buy.

528. MACKENZIE, GORDON N. "Community Cooperation in Curriculum Planning," *Teachers College Record*, LI (March, 1950), 347–52.

Points out that the school would do well to leave to the community those aspects of education which the latter performs well and should assist in those areas in which the community either does not educate automatically or tends to miseducate automatically.

ADMINISTRATION

DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION[2]

529. FOWLKES, JOHN GUY. "Democratic Administration and Leadership," *School Management*, XIX (February, 1950), 2, 6, 7.

States that understanding is just as important on the part of the faculty as it is on the part of the administrator. Defines the word "leader."

530. LANGFITT, R. EMERSON. "How Can Democratic Administration Be Attained by the Principal?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (March, 1950), 193–99.

Contains seven proposals for the development of democratic administration by the principal.

531. MARCH, LELAND S. "What Is Democratic School Administration?" *School Executive*, LVIII (May, 1949), 42–45.

Pleads for a common understanding of the term "democratic school administration" and notes areas in which teachers can, and should, participate in the organization and administration of a well-run school.

532. WILLETT, G. W. "The Place of the Expert in Democratic Administration," *American School Board Journal*, CXX (May, 1950), 29–30.

Asks whether the capabilities of the expert in establishing conditions conducive to making teacher-pupil relationships effective must be neglected in order to cater to a particular formula of democratic procedure currently expounded by some educational theorists.

[2] Item 537 in this list presents an article by Samuel D. Moskowitz, entitled "The Teachers' Council and Democratic Administration," which describes the group process in action in teachers' councils and discusses teachers' interest in, and opportunities for, participation in administration.

533. WILSON, CHARLES H. "Policy and Democratic School Administration," *American School Board Journal*, CXX (February, 1950), 19–21.

Contends that the administrator should establish such policy as his best judgment indicates is compatible with the general policy of the school, but that the policy should always be subject to change by group action.

THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

534. HUTCHINSON, EARL. "How Can We Solve Problems of Administration in the Small High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (March, 1950), 99–105.

Stresses the fact that the small high school will be part of the education scene for many years and points out the need for administrators with vision and leadership. Gives examples of how problems are being solved in some small high schools.

535. MORRISETT, LLOYD N. "How Can We Solve the Problems of Administration in the Small High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (March, 1950), 89–99.

Lists eight vital administrative problems and offers suggestions for their solution.

536. OLIVER, A. I. "The Objectives of a Small High School's Philosophy," *School Review*, LVIII (March, 1950), 139–46.

Reports the results obtained from a questionnaire submitted to a selected group of principals, superintendents, and prominent theorists in curriculum construction.

RESPONSIBILITIES AND REQUIREMENTS OF ADMINISTRATION

537. "Administrative Challenges in the Secondary Schools," *Bulletin of the*

National Association of Secondary-School Principals, XXXIV (January, 1950), 1–290.

The entire issue is devoted to presenting a selected sampling of actual administrative and supervisory practices.

538. MILLER, CHESTER F., and COULTER, CHARLES C. "Induction Week Looks Like Hard Work, But—," *Nation's Schools*, XLIV (August, 1949), 45–46.

Contains suggestions for organizing an induction week and lists nine possible results of preschool conferences.

539. TAYLOR, J. CAREY. "How the Administrator Can Help the Social Studies Program," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XXVII (October, 1949), 10.

Suggests ways in which the administrator can aid in establishing a sound social-studies program.

FACULTY RESPONSIBILITIES AND REQUIREMENTS

540. CORY, N. DURWARD. "When Teachers Participate in School Administration," *Nation's Schools*, XLV (April, 1950), 61–62.

Points out the benefits resulting when teachers recognize and assume their responsibilities in working co-operatively with the administrator in the solving of school problems.

541. GARRETT, LAWRENCE. "Teachers Lead the Way," *American Teacher*, XXXIV (January, 1950), 17–20.

Reports on the results obtained from a questionnaire submitted to six hundred Denver teachers regarding the need for possible improvements in classroom instruction.

542. MCINTYRE, KENNETH E. "Horizons beyond the Classroom: Prepare Teachers To Fight for Educational Reforms," *Nation's Schools*, XLV (February, 1950), 61.

Stresses the importance of giving teachers a knowledge of those problems that pre-vent the realization of the ideal in the majority of the schools and of developing in them a sense of responsibility for overcoming such deficiencies.

PUPIL PERSONNEL

543. DAVIS, FRANK G. "Pupil Personnel Service in the Public Schools," *Education*, LXX (April, 1950), 512–14.

Defines the term "pupil personnel" as contrasted with "guidance" and points out basic concepts embodied in the term "pupil personnel."

544. DUGAN, WILLIS E. "Guidance and Counseling Services in the Senior High School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (March, 1950), 45–53.

Emphasizes the role of guidance as an integral part of the school program and stresses the administrator's responsibilities to provide the leadership necessary for its inauguration and development.

545. JANES, H. PAUL. "How about a Special Adjustment Coach in the High School?" *School Executive*, LXIX (November, 1949), 44.

Describes an experimental program organized to care for educationally frustrated children.

546. MASON, LAURENCE G. "Guidance Aids for Incoming Freshmen," *Clearing House*, XXIV (March, 1950), 419–20.

Explains the plan used in one high school of providing eighth-grade students with information that will help them to make the proper choice among the courses of study.

547. SECHRIEST, EARL E. "What Kind of Guidance and Counseling Programs in the Senior High School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXIV (March, 1950), 39–45.

Cites examples of the need for adequate guidance and lists eight agencies through which guidance can be exercised.

FINANCING ACTIVITIES

548. CURRY, E. M. "Sources and Expenditures of Student Activity Fees in the Community-Junior Colleges of Illinois," *Junior College Journal*, XX (November, 1949), 141–45.

Reports the findings of a questionnaire study submitted to fifteen midwestern public junior colleges. Contains suggestions for the improvement of the use of student-activities fees.

549. GRAFFLIN, D. G. "Why Sell Tickets?" Quoted in *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXXI (November, 1949), 137.

Contends that, if school sports are justified by their contributions to the education of young people, these sports should be supported by the general school funds.

550. HALLEY, ROBERT R. "A Student-Body Budget in a Small Rural High School," *American School Board Journal*, CXIX (July, 1949), 28.

Describes how a joint student-faculty group in a small rural high school draws up and administers a school-activities budget.

551. HAND, HAROLD C. "Hidden Tuition Charges in Extra-class Activities," *Educational Forum*, XIV (November, 1949), 95–103.

Reports the results obtained from a study conducted in sixty-five four-year high schools in Illinois on the costs to the pupil of engaging in extra-class activities. Contains fifteen tables showing the ranges in costs of various activities.

552. PLANK, JOSEPH G. "Ad Nauseum," *School Activities*, XXI (January, 1950), 149.

Describes what happened in one high school when the school board ruled against any solicitation of advertising to support school publications.

PUBLIC RELATIONS[3]

553. AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS. *Public Relations for America's Schools.* Twenty-eighth Yearbook. Washington: American Association of School Administrators, 1950. Pp. 498.

Explains the broad field of school public relations and indicates its essential landmarks. Deals primarily with purposes, principles, relationships, and values.

554. ANDERSON, VIVIENNE. "Editing the School-Community Paper," *School Executive*, LXIX (December, 1949), 31.

Presents practical suggestions for realizing the maximum value of the school-community paper.

555. ANDERSON, VIVIENNE. "Establishing Relations with the Press," *School Executive*, LXIX (February, 1950), 54.

Emphasizes the tremendous influence of the press in molding public opinion and enumerates ways of securing press cooperation.

556. DAVIDSON, ROBERT C. "Principles of Educational Public Relations," *School and Society*, LXX (December 17, 1949), 404–6.

Presents general concepts regarding the nature and scope of the philosophy underlying public school public relations.

557. FOSDICK, HARRY A. "Freeways to Friendships," *NEA Journal*, XXXVIII (November, 1949), 582–83.

A condensation of the California Teachers Association's handbook, *Freeways to Friendships*, on public relations.

558. MILLER, WARD I. "Building Public Understanding of Education," *School Executive*, LXIX (November, 1949), 11–14.

Points out that understanding of the purposes and methods of public education is derived from two sources: information and appreciation.

559. PORTER-SHIRLEY, CARL H. "Think of Parents as Partners," *Nation's Schools*, XLIV (September, 1949), 66–68.

[3] See also Item 93 (Robinson) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1950, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

Contends that educational policy is determined eventually by the public and that the kind of educational policy—good or poor—which is adopted in each community depends, to a great extent, on the understanding of the citizens.

ACCREDITATION

560. MARDIS, H. C. "What the New Program of Accrediting Secondary Schools Means to Member Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXIV (January, 1950), 276–83.

Commends the new program of accrediting and points out the challenges that arise from the new criteria.

EVALUATION, RECORDS, AND REPORTS

561. "Annual Reports Obsolete?" *Nation's Schools*, XLIV (July, 1949), 19.

Contends that the time-honored superintendent's report is badly in need of revision and modernization.

562. DIEDERICH, PAUL B. "Design for a Comprehensive Evaluation Program," *School Review*, LVIII (April, 1950), 225–32.

Stresses the importance of establishing a committee on evaluation and outlines the function of such a committee.

563. ENGELHART, MAX D. "Improvement of Evaluation of Achievement in High Schools," *High School Journal*, XXXIII (January–February, 1950), 6–12.

Contains a number of suggestions with respect to evaluation of the attainment of a variety of objectives.

564. GADDIS, EDWIN A. "A Simple and Inexpensive System of Keeping Cumulative Records," *Nation's Schools*, XLIV (July, 1949), 26.

Explains a practical system of keeping cumulative records, which involves a minimum of clerical work.

565. "Micro-filming Records," *Nation's Schools*, XLV (April, 1950), 92.

Explains the process of microfilming and notes the savings in space and money through using the process.

566. SIMPSON, ALFRED D. "Budgeting, Accounting, Auditing, and Reporting," *Review of Educational Research*, XX (April, 1950), 135–41.

Reports the current literature in the four fields. Includes a selected bibliography.

ATTENDANCE

567. BELL, JOHN W. "Promoting Regular Attendance in the High School," *American School Board Journal*, CXIX (September, 1949), 34.

Argues for the establishment of a thorough and systematic program of pupil attendance.

568. COYNE, VELMA. "Attendance 97%: A School Steps Up Its A.D.A.," *Clearing House*, XXIV (December, 1949), 219–20.

Explains the devices used by which reluctant feet were impelled schoolward.

569. HOLBECK, ELMER S. "Seven Ways To Help Prevent Drop-outs," *Nation's Schools*, XLV (May, 1950), 35–36.

Contends that the main factor causing the alarming number of drop-outs is the curriculum. Presents specific suggestions for correcting the situation.

570. TOMPKINS, ELLSWORTH. "Where Are the Boys?" *School and Society*, LXX (July 2, 1949), 8–10.

Emphasizes the fact that more girls than boys attend, and are graduated from, American secondary schools, although our population contains more boys than girls through the age of nineteen. Presents statistical data.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

The American College. Edited by P. F. VAL-ENTINE. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1949. Pp. xvi+576.

The volume, *The American College,* is an attempt to focus the thinking of representatives of higher institutions on the problems now facing higher education. In planning this book, the editor secured writers of recognized authority to deal with some of the many crucial problems relating to the functions and services of the American college. The contributors include Dean T. R. McConnell, of the University of Minnesota; Malcolm S. MacLean, of the University of California; W. H. Cowley, of Stanford University; Ruth Strang, of Columbia University; John T. Wahlquist, of the University of Utah; and other distinguished educators. While each contributor has injected a personal style and point of view into the volume, the individual contributions have been adapted to an over-all plan in an attempt to analyze many of the issues pertinent to the admission and treatment of students, the nature of the instructional program, and the structural organization of higher education.

The seventeen chapters of the volume deal with outstanding problems in the several recognized areas of the institution of higher learning and also with current conflicting theories pertaining to policies and programs in these areas. Chapter i, written by the editor, provides a sketch of the development of the American college and discusses some of the outstanding factors influencing this development. Chapter ii provides further orientation through a discussion of World War II and its relation to current problems facing

the American College. A discussion of the roles played by local, state, and federal governments in helping to solve the problems growing out of World War II is also included.

In light of the much-needed emphasis on student personnel work in higher education, it is encouraging to note that several chapters of the volume are devoted to this area of the college and university program. Chapters included in this area are "Counseling and Guidance," "Student Activities and Organizations," "Cultural Activities and Welfare Services," and "Selection and Capabilities of Students." The emphasis in these discussions is placed on the need for the institution of higher learning to recognize every student as a unique personality and to provide the necessary facilities for a maximum development of each student. Many techniques that will help to bring about this individualization of the educational program are discussed and evaluated. Among the techniques receiving attention are counseling, objective testing, and the use of cumulative records. It is also timely that these discussions on student personnel services give due emphasis to the value of out-of-class activities in the student's total development. Throughout the discussions on personnel services, the need for thoroughly trained persons to carry on these services in the college is stressed, and a program of training for personnel workers is described.

An interesting and thought-provoking section of the volume is the portion dealing with the conflicting theories of general education. In this section, special attention is given to the need for a continuous examina-

tion of all these theories and of all experiments and practices growing out of them. A chapter is devoted to a discussion of conflicting philosophies of graduate study, and it is pointed out that, at the moment, no rung of the educational ladder needs more attention than does the graduate school. Several suggested proposals to bring about needed improvements at the graduate level are discussed and appraised. Again it is emphasized that this needed improvement will come only through continuous study and examination of the current policies relating to the graduate program.

Other timely topics receiving attention in the volume are those dealing with general administration and organization; liberal education and specialization; experimenting in college instruction; the junior college; the teachers' college; health, physical education, and athletics; and public relations. To the reviewer, one of the important aspects of these discussions is the comprehensive nature in which the public-relations function of the college is viewed. It is emphasized that public relations must be a continuing and co-operative process of creating, implementing, and interpreting policies, activities, services and attitudes which will show that the college in its total operation is living up to its social, civic, and moral responsibility.

While no single publication can begin to treat adequately all the problems of the American college, the present volume makes a distinct contribution in pointing up and presenting some possible solutions to the critical problems it has chosen for discussion. The book should serve to guide the thinking of those persons who are responsible for determining major policies in American higher education today. It will likewise prove valuable for persons having responsibility for the more immediate program of the college and for the instructing of youth at the college level.

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T. L. Engle, *Psychology: Its Principles and Applications.* Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1950 (revised). Pp. xii+628. $3.08.

The content of an introductory course in psychology is always a subject of controversy because of the various approaches to the study of psychology represented in the teachings and writings of leading authorities. Engle's revision of his textbook, *Psychology: Its Principles and Applications,* for the use of high-school and college students approaches the selection of content by presenting material that is likely to be of value to the student who will complete only one formal course in the subject. According to Engle, the book is an attempt to help young persons (1) to differentiate between pseudoscientific and scientific material; (2) to grasp the basic principles of science, in particular the science of psychology; (3) to bring out the best in their personalities; (4) to be better students; (5) to apply the principles of mental hygiene consistently and efficiently; (6) to select their vocations sagaciously, in order that they may be successful in them; (7) to make rewarding use of leisure time; (8) to be valuable members of their present homes and of the homes which they will be establishing within a few years; and (9) to prepare to take up their responsibilities for participating as citizens in a democracy.

To accomplish these objectives, the content of the course is organized into six practical units, through which students become acquainted with principles of psychology and their applications. Unit I introduces the student to the science of psychology by comparing it with pseudo sciences that are often represented as psychology. In Unit II, patterns of behavior are presented in terms of personality and intelligence. Unit III presents a discussion of the influences of heredity, environment, and biological processes on patterns of behavior. Unit IV deals with the psychology of learning and emphasizes particularly the improvement of techniques of

study. Unit V is designed to assist the student in making desirable personal adjustments, and Unit VI is devoted to broader problems of adjustment in the groups with which the student will become associated. Objective studies are utilized throughout the book to give a scientific basis to the considerations.

The manner of presenting the various topics should be particularly helpful to a beginning student. Each chapter is introduced by a series of questions that direct attention to the salient points. The paragraph headings are also in the form of questions. Technical terms are well developed and clearly defined at the points at which they are introduced. Frequently, psychological concepts are carefully developed before they are named. A list of significant technical terms, a list of questions for review, and a number of suggested activities follow. The student who utilizes these helps should find the study of each chapter a thought-provoking experience.

The professional psychologist may gain the impression that the author has attempted to cover too many of the specialized fields of psychology for an elementary course. In fact, the author's list of objectives, as set forth in the first paragraph of this review, are almost as broad as a list of the general objectives of education. In attempting such a broad survey of a field, there is always danger of treating the topics so superficially that the beginning student may not gain sufficient depth and breadth of understanding. However, the teacher who desires to handle the topics more thoroughly may make a selection of the units to be presented and may utilize them as a basis for more extended study. The selection and organization of material should serve well as a nonspecialized introduction to psychology.

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GEORGE W. NORVELL, *The Reading Interests of Young People*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1950. Pp. viii+262. $3.50.

For nearly five decades investigators have sought to discover the reading interests of various groups of people. The purposes for ascertaining the interests have been as varied as the techniques which evolved in the searches. It is possible to categorize most of the studies that have been conducted as endeavors to find out (1) what people say they want, or would like, to read about or would be interested in reading; (2) what they enjoy reading or find interesting or like best of the materials with which they have come in contact; (3) what they say they read; (4) what they actually read; and (5) what they want to read to the extent that they take steps to secure the desired reading matter.

At first glance, it may appear that information bearing on one or more of these categories might be rather easily obtained, but a study of the methods and techniques which various investigators have used in their attacks on the problems indicates the exceedingly difficult nature of identifying factors and isolating them for intensive examination. Questionnaires, interviews, direct observation, and case studies have been among the techniques utilized. Whatever the technique pursued, one fact has stood out—allowance must be made for maximum freedom for the individual to choose materials from all areas. To the extent that the choice is limited, the value of the study is impaired. To date, there appears to be no study that does not, in some form or manner, limit the readers' choices of all the available materials which various underlying motives may impel them to read.

Norvell's study, *The Reading Interests of Young People*, is, without doubt, the most extensive of any of the reading-interest investigations that have been conducted. Carried on over a twelve-year period, Norvell was able, with the assistance of over 50,000 New York state pupils and 625 of their teachers in all types of communities and sizes of schools,

to bring together an astonishing total of 1,590,000 individual opinions on 1,700 literary selections. Yet, despite the magnitude of the job entailed, the survey is somewhat narrow because it concerns itself only with what pupils say they enjoy reading, or find interesting, or like best of the materials with which they have come in contact in the classroom.

Norvell recognizes this limitation; for he states that his purpose was "to discover student reactions to materials actually used in the classroom under common instructional practice" (p. v). In addition to the primary purpose of hastening the demise of certain selections through definite establishment of the facts of their unpopularity, the study sought to provide needed information on the differences existing between boys' and girls' reading interests. As Norvell states:

> There has been increasing recognition of the role played in learning and habit formation by the factor of interest. Granting the dominance of this factor, it seems that the high objective, a love of good reading, might be attained through providing children with an ample supply of literary selections which stand where the lines of student popularity and critical approval converge [p. 3].

In an effort to establish the identity of such selections, Norvell tabulated pupils' expressions of opinion according to the children's grade in school, sex, and level of intelligence. In recording his data, he developed what he called an "interest score." His questionnaire forms, which were filled out by the pupils themselves, contained, in addition to each selection and author listed, three columns headed "Very Interesting," "Fairly Interesting," and "Uninteresting." By adding half the number reporting a given selection "Fairly Interesting" to the total number reporting the same selection "Very Interest-

ing," and dividing the resulting sum by the total of all pupils reporting, the interest score was obtained.

The findings of Norvell, which are presented in text and tabular form, will be of interest to teachers, librarians, curriculum makers, compilers of reading lists, editors of anthologies and other persons who are interested in guiding children's reading; for they will find answers to questions such as the following: "What is the influence of age, intelligence, and sex upon children's choices of reading materials?" "What is the influence of such special characteristics of reading materials as humor, adventure, poetic form, etc.?" "How well do boys and girls like the individual selections they read or study in school?" "Which selections are favorites?" "Which are seriously disliked?" "How do the various literary types rank in popularity?" "What are the favorable and the unfavorable interest factors that influence boys' and girls' reading?" "What evidence is there that boys are discriminated against in the choice of reading materials for school use?" "Could better materials be substituted?"

Norvell's study, even though it is concerned only with what pupils say they find interesting among the materials with which they have come in contact in the classroom, is a valuable addition to the field of children's reading-interest studies. One feels that the author is correct when he says:

> In view, then, of the critical need for a continuous supply of dependable data concerning children's reading interests, and the extent of the investigation required, might it not be a justifiable undertaking for a university or educational foundation to establish a permanent research center in this field? [p. 9].

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